



ABSTRACT

This paper provides a framework with abundant ideas and material oriented to help people involved in teaching or learning English as a second or foreign language. Though relevant research has been done for centuries, there are and there will be always room for improvement, adaptations, and changes of methods, techniques and strategies, provided that language, itself, is a living being and, therefore, the basic components of its corpus, words, come into light, become part of the corpus, and then die.

We emphasize on the importance of teaching vocabulary through schematic and well-documented information. As a result of an extensive bibliography, some field research, and our own experimentation we have come to the conclusion that all the above-cited sources reveal the necessity to improve the methodology to teach vocabulary by giving students the opportunity of being spontaneous with their written and spoken language, which allows them to become starring participants of the teaching learning process.

Further on, our thesis statement points out to detailed literature on language classroom interaction, so that readers can understand thoroughly the role and scope of classroom interaction, which is expected to be applied in the language-learning process. In so doing,

English teachers will perceive that self-confidence, motivation, and free-expression will flow from the learner's skills. Likewise, our thesis pioneers a range of activities to promote creativity, which results in conscious or unconscious learners and teachers' engagement that sets them in the route of constant research and creativity, given that language teaching is a never-ending task.

KEY WORDS: interaction, vocabulary, communication, teaching, skills, classroom activities, rebus.



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We want to express our gratitude to God first,
and then to our families for their constant support.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife who has supported me constantly,
and my children, especially my little daughter, Johannita, who has understood
me when I couldn't play with her. Also, it is dedicated to my parents
who have supported me economically and morally, especially to my mother
who passed away when I was in the middle of this work and she is not with me
anymore In this way I have gotten to finish my biggest dream.

Victor

I want to dedicate this thesis
to my mother, brothers, sisters and boyfriend;
but this is specially dedicated to my son
whom I live for everyday .

Marisol



INTRODUCTION

Our thesis project is addressed to English teachers, specifically to those who are responsible for the 8th year of basic education and those who want to improve their teaching performance in the light of up-dated theories and teaching approaches. This work provides language teachers with an insight on how to keep working in order to evolve ways of teaching vocabulary.

The content of the thesis has been outlined in three chapters, each of them with a specific aim. Chapter one tackles on teaching theories; the second one deals with techniques, strategies, and ideas; the third one focuses on practical activities. The main aim of this work is to frame a change of the conventional and passive methodology used for teaching vocabulary, so far. Obviously, the effects of those useless teaching tools have been suffered by students. Accordingly, we point out the attempts made to optimize vocabulary teaching since the seventeenth century up to present days. No doubt, this is an ever-developing, and never-stopping task that involves language teachers and students alike, in their search for becoming linguistically and communicably competent individuals in the light of the world approaching and technological changes.

Indeed, the implementation of changes in the way of teaching vocabulary demands a significant change of mind from the actors, accompanied by a disciplined daily routine that may lead to meet the requirements for a successful change. Considering methodology, linguistics, and the language teaching field are social subjects themselves, the ideas and strategies included in this paper may not be regarded as absolute, due to the variety of linguistic contexts that English teachers are to find, and the difference from group to group and even more from learner to learner.

From this premise, the novel aspect revealed in our thesis lies on the implementation of total interaction in the language classroom, which contributes physically, methodologically, and psychologically to improve the learners' performance without having to break the classroom rapport and rather socializing



the setting. Similarly, the statement of this work differs greatly from some of the former ones, in the sense that we do not consider vocabulary one more part of a language, but the very essence of it.

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTERACTION AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

1.1. STRATEGIES TO CREATE INTERACTION

Before defining the term **interaction**, it is worth pointing out that it demands the participation of two or more people or any kind of acting elements which are going to focus their activities on the same target to produce verbal or body language communication. To justify this statement, we include this definition: “The way in which language is used by interlocutors.”¹ To clarify this statement, we use the term “Interactionism” which is conceptualized as “The view that language development and social development are associated and the fact that they cannot be understood separately.”² In this respect, researchers have taken an interactionist position by focusing on the social context of language development, and how the relationship between the language learner and the people with whom he or she interacts influences language acquisition. This perspective may be contrasted with a linguistic approach that holds that language acquisition can be understood through an analysis of the learners’ utterances, independently of his or her cognitive development or social life. But, as with every human action, there are ways of interaction, which we consider convenient to enhance our explanation by describing the interactional and transactional functions of language.

1. The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics, page 86, 2002. “The way in which language is used by interlocutors.”



2. The Dictionary of Basic Vocabulary, page 7, 2004, views that language development and social development are associated and the fact that they cannot be understood separately.

They are regarded as a distinction that is made between uses of language where the primary focus is social interaction between the speakers and the need to communicate; such things are:

- a) rapport
- b) interest
- c) empathy
- d) social harmony

Also are those where the primary focus is communicating information and completing different kinds of real world transactions; this means that interactional communication is primarily person-oriented, whereas transactional communication is primarily message focused.

Smith H. & Higgins S.³ claim that strategies have identified interactive classrooms as effective learning spaces, where the teacher and pupils can explore, discuss, and reason about issues, creating both shared and individual learning. From this point of view, the UK-based study investigated the role teachers can play in facilitating interactive classrooms through the use of feedback in lessons. The researchers found that feedback designed to open up thinking and discussion involves engaging, with responses to questions and offering pupils opportunities to express themselves.



3. Smith H & Higgins S. Cambridge Journal of Education, page 22, 2006. The author remarks on the importance of strategies for achieving an interactive classroom.

They add that to put into practice their pedagogical approach, it is necessary to find classrooms where effective interactive learning is taking place, which is characterized by teachers' use of feedback to create a conversational environment.

These classrooms had a more even distribution of dialogue between the teacher and pupils than classrooms with poor interactive learning. Teachers were found to be using a range of feedback techniques to encourage conversation that promoted learning and fostered interaction. These feedback techniques include:

- opening up pupils' responses to closed questions
- encouraging peer-peer feedback
- facilitating longer responses to questions
- engaging with pupils' ideas, comments, and personal reflections
- adopting a flexible approach to using pupils' input to shape lessons

Conversational classroom dialogue was established when teachers asked questions aimed at opening subsequent classroom discourse, reacted to responses from pupils, and used conversational prompts, such as "oh," "ooh," "ah," giving opinion and drawing on personal experiences. For example:

Pupil: “Ehm, it's a guitar and that's a violin, people play them to produce instrumental music.”

Teacher: “People say that playing the guitar is not as complicated as playing the violin.” Thereby, the old saying: “One thing is with the guitar and another with the



violin.” Interactive classrooms also encouraged peer-peer interaction, conversations, and feedback, as a way in which pupils could respond to questions and expand on ideas. Teachers played a key role in facilitating peer-peer conversations by inviting pupils to respond to each others' answers; for example:

Teacher: “I can play the guitar, but not the violin. My younger brother plays the violin very well.”

Pupil: “My father plays the guitar. He plays traditional and romantic music.”

Teacher: “Can any of you play a musical instrument? Playing musical instruments is an interesting hobby.”

Pupil: “I am learning to play the drum and the maracas.”

Researchers found that teachers who were able to adapt lessons in response to pupil questions and feedback also promoted interactive learning environments. The following example is from a lesson where pupils are using interactive whiteboards to draw shapes:

Pupil: “You – addressing the whole class – you also can play the drum and the maraca. It’s a matter of practice.”

Teacher (smiling). “You can try it this moment – showing the instruments to the students.

Pupil: “I will ask my father to buy me another musical instrument. For example, a harmonica.”

Teacher: “ It’s a matter of decision and determination. You can learn everything you want to. You can become famous musicians.”

This kind of flexibility in lessons and engagement with pupils' feedback to questions was found to give pupils a greater sense of ownership of their learning.

According to Smith and Higgins’ point of view, teachers can combine already-existing strategies with new ones or just modify the now-existing ones in order to



create interaction such is the case of questioning, which can be split up into open and closed. So, this study discusses the nature of open and closed questions. Researchers suggest that the key difference lies in the opportunities each type of question creates for classroom interaction. They also indicate the potential benefits of adapting closed questions to make them more open.

Open questions typically have multiple answers which are open to discussion and negotiation. For example, toward the end of literacy lessons on writing instructions the teacher asked:

Teacher: “OK, I hope you can play musical instruments in a short time. Get a person who can teach you how to play musical instruments step-by-step. Are you determined to do it from now on?”

The questions posed by the teacher in this example are open to a range of possible responses from pupils, with no one pre-defined “correct” answer.

Closed questions are usually understood to have a “correct factual” answer; however, researchers suggest that even closed questions can be transformed into opportunities for interaction through the teacher's facilitation of the situation as in the following sequence. The teacher asks a simple factual question; Pupil A responds with the correct answer. The teacher then opens this up to the whole class to corroborate, challenge, and discuss this answer and suggest alternative answers. Effective teachers also asked closed questions to open up thinking about incorrect responses.



Feedback has been shown to be another effective strategy to create interaction in the language classroom. Researchers have found classrooms where effective interactive learning is taking place; these spaces were characterized by teachers' effective use of feedback to stimulate classroom talk and to support pupils to articulate more complete and elaborate ideas. They explain that “feedback” is part of the common structure of classroom interactions which take the form of Initiation, usually a question from the teachers, response, usually an answer from pupils and feedback. The standard IRF (Interaction Response Faculty) exchange can lead to teacher-pupil interactions being overly teacher-controlled. However, feedback, in the authors' view, creates opportunities for the teacher to involve more pupils and share ownership of the dialogue.

Pupil 1: “Teacher, you were playing soccer last Saturday afternoon at the community stadium. You are skilful with the ball. You are fast and a good shooter.”

Teacher: “Oh! Thank you for your praising words. I really love playing football because my older brother, Joe, was a professional soccer player. He played many years for the team of the city. They even got a championship in 2003. My brother gave me the shoe with which he scored the goal in the championship.”

Pupil 2: “My father also likes to play football. We join brothers, cousins and neighbours to play it on the school field. My father is a good free-shooter, while my cousins are skillful with their heads. Sometimes we win, but others we lose. Whatever the result, we always enjoy playing it.”

Teacher: “That's great. Because sport keeps you healthy and fit.”



Pupil 2: “My father thinks that playing football is a good habit that helps us expel the toxins from our body and at the same time, increases the level of assimilation when you learn something.”

Teacher: “Oh! You mean that people who are good at sports are also good students. I agree with you, because I’ve met some friends who are excellent soccer or basketball players and they are also very good professionals. It depends on your good will because you become the kind of professional you want to.”

Pupil 3: “My grandfather tells us that doing sports is better than going to the doctor or taking medicines, tablets, pills, or syrups. Therefore all the family members practice jogging and play volleyball.”

By paraphrasing the pupils' ideas, the teacher ratified their importance, while also facilitating a shared understanding.

1.1.1. INTERACTION AND MOTIVATION

Susan Bergin and Roman Reilly⁴ claim that motivation may be described as a student’s willingness, need, desire, and compulsion to participate and be successful in the learning process. The authors add that though students may be motivated to perform a task, the sources of their motivation may differ greatly. In this respect, they claim that a student who is intrinsically motivated undertakes an activity for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, and the learning it permits, while an extrinsically motivated student is driven by

4. Bergin, Susan and Reilly, Roman, www. home page http, page 2, 2007. In their concept, Motivation is the fuel that drives the language learning process.



some reward or by avoiding some punishment which is external to the activity itself.

From this experiment, the authors have come to the conclusion that students who are intrinsically motivated, rather than extrinsically motivated, perform better and that using extrinsic motivators to engage students in learning can both lower achievement and negatively affect students' motivation.

Jere Brophy claims that it is essential to understand motivation and defines it within the language teaching field as “a competence acquired through general experience but stimulated most directly through modelling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant people who are in constant contact such as parents and teachers.”⁵

The author starts her survey by claiming that children's home environment shapes the initial constellation of attitudes they develop toward learning. When parents nurture their children's natural curiosity about the world by welcoming their questions, encouraging exploration, and familiarizing them with resources that can enlarge their world, they are giving their children the message that learning is worthwhile and frequently fun and satisfying. In this respect, she affirms that when children are raised in a home that nurtures a sense of self-worth, competence, autonomy, and self-efficacy, they will be more apt to accept the risks inherent in learning. Conversely, when children do not view themselves as basically competent and able, their freedom to engage in academically challenging pursuits and capacity to tolerate and cope with failure are greatly diminished.

5. Brophy, Jere. Motivation is the Early Stages of the Learning Process, pages 121 and 122, 1987. In the author's terms, motivation is the output of direct experience.



Further on, she adds that once children start school, they begin forming beliefs about their school-related successes and failures. The sources to which children attribute their successes, namely common effort, ability, luck, or level of task difficulty and failures have important implications on how they approach and cope with learning situations. In her point of view, these factors are closely related to the beliefs teachers themselves have about teaching and learning and the nature of the expectations they hold for students also exert a powerful influence based on the mutual wish: "To a very large degree, students expect to learn if their teachers expect them to learn," as Deborah Stipek (1988) manifest.

1.1.2. INTERACTION AND COMMUNICATION

Moss and Ross Feldman⁶ affirm that learners of all ages need to speak and understand spoken English for a variety of reasons. They set the example of immigrant adults who need English for daily life to communicate with the doctor, the employer, the school, the workmates, and the community. The authors add that it is this communicative ability that permits them to be appreciated, encouraged, and challenged to further goals. This experience can be transferred to the class in which students participate in interactive, communicative activities in all facets of the class, say, ice-breaking activities, needs assessment, and goal-setting to life-skills, phonics and spelling. The authors assert that this is especially true where there is a strong-classroom community that supports natural language production.

6. [www. language media. com](http://www.language-media.com) – Moss and Feldman, Ross – Activities to Promote Communication in Language Teaching, pages 205 to 207, 2003. The writers conceptualize the English language as a survival tool.



To convey this idea to the language classroom as an effective and dynamic way of teaching we regard it as worth understanding what communicative activities are.

First of all, let us conceptualize communication from the linguistic point of view. Dictionary of Science and Technology.⁷ “It is the exchange of ideas and information between two or more people.” In an act of communication there is usually at least one speaker or sender, a message which is transmitted and the receiver for whom the message is intended.

Thus, communication can be studied from many disciplinary perspectives. To clarify this statement, it is necessary to explain the role of communicative strategies, which are regarded as a way used to express a meaning in a second or foreign language by a learner who has a limited command of that language. In this view, in trying to communicate, a learner may have to make up for a lack of knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. For example, the learner may not be able to say, “It’s against the law to park here, and so he or she may say “This place cannot park.” For handkerchief, a learner could say, “A cloth for my nose” or for an apartment complex, the learner could say “building.” In an attempt to solve this communicative problem, linguists and teaching researchers have resorted to the use of paraphrase and other communicative strategies, such as gestures, mime, and body language.

The above-stated assertion means that a communicative approach to foreign or second language teaching emphasizes that the goal of language learning in present days is communication based on the communicative competence, which seeks to make meaningful,

7. “Dictionary of Science and Technology”. Simon Collins, page 98, 2003. For this author, Communication is people’s verbal interaction.



communication and language use a focus of all classroom activities. In this respect, communicative language teaching has led to a re-examination of language teaching goals, syllabuses, materials, and classroom activities and, of course, has had a major impact on changes in language teaching worldwide.

Obviously, the performance of communicative activities demands some challenges, such as those language learners that have had success in schooling in their native countries, which means that their learning process may have been very teacher-directed. In these situations, learners are expected to be quiet and listen to the teacher and then, when asked, to respond to the teacher in unison with the correct answer. When this occurs, some language learners may be initially disconcerted when their foreign language teachers begin asking them to get up and move around, work in pairs or groups and talk to one another. It also may be difficult for learners to realize that there can be more than one correct response to a question and many ways to ask it.

The authors claim that the success of this communicative process is mainly based on how the teacher follows the tips which are especially crucial for literacy and beginning level classes as vehicles to move learners toward independent and confident learning. Thus, the authors recommend the following tips to get successful results:

- Keep teacher talk to a minimum – explain as much as possible when demonstrating the process, explaining in different ways and repeating. Not to worry if every learner doesn't understand every part of an activity – move on when the majority of learners get the idea, then monitor and help if necessary. Remember, one way to gauge the success of a class for English



language learners is to observe how much or how little the students are depending on the teacher. The more learners are involved in the activity, the more successful results they get.

- Keep in mind that learners of all levels are highly competent individuals, able to successfully work out with difficulties.
- Think in the premise that communication must produce fun because these kinds of activities are designed to create a lively and interactive atmosphere because when there is comfort in the learning process learners are likely to learn more. This means that an active, cooperative class is the one with a great deal of learning – social, cultural and linguistic environment.

1.1.3. INTERACTION AND NEGOTIATION

Theresa Pica, in her work **Research on Negotiation**⁸ talks about the social interaction and negotiation of L2 learners and their interlocutors and emphasizes on the fact that negotiation contributes to conditions, processes, and outcomes of L2 learning by facilitating learners' comprehension and structural segmentation of L2 input, access to lexical form, and meaning and production of modified output.

According to this survey, negotiation came into light in the late 70s by Evelyn Hatch; her research was considered a pivotal and indelible mark in the field of second language acquisition. Actually, the term negotiation has its roots in interaction and reciprocal agreement, despite controversies that emerged from people who were against a totally

8. Pica, Theresa – University of Pennsylvania – Annual Second Language Research Forum, page 12, 1992. She points out the vital role of negotiation in language teaching.



flexible rapport. Further on, this term has been used to characterize the modifications and re-structuring of interaction that occurs when learners and interlocutors anticipate, perceive, and experience difficulties in message comprehensibility, whether repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its form and meaning in a host of other ways. Of course, negotiation is not the only way in which interaction between learners and their interlocutors can be modified or re-structured.

Pica adds that these ways of modifying interaction have been deeply analyzed with respect to their possible contributions to the learning process.

But negotiation itself has put its emphasis on achieving comprehensibility of message-meaning, considering that the content of the message has been provided to learners and by learners – this view has sparked and sustained considerably more interest in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

In addition, socio-linguists have also looked at interaction and negotiation among non-native speakers and interlocutors for what these processes reveal about the social roles and responsibilities of this relationship. Pica affirms that the term negotiation has been extensively used in other fields before its adoption by SLA researchers. Pica adds that the fact that made Hatch's view so special was her notion that interaction could also be used as a basis for examining the linguistic and cognitive features of the L2 learning process, not just the social ones. Hatch also made it clear from the outset that what was found could not necessarily be applied to decisions about classroom methods. No doubt, it was a delicate matter as Hatch asserts, so she was cautious in pointing out, moreover, that connections between interaction and SLA was easier said than done. On the one hand, the most obvious role of the exchange between learners and interlocutors was for learners to check out the vocabulary and to seek background information which means that their role in syntax building was not immediately apparent.

Further, Hatch noted that her work needed to draw out connections between interaction and SLA, but these might be messy, keeping researchers at the level of



observation, impression, and anecdote. She concludes by suggesting that researchers might be able to provide interesting samples of data, which could suffer from the lack of consistency needed to shed light on how language learners' discourse played a fundamental role in language learning conditions, processes, and outcomes.

1.1.4. KRASHEN'S HYPOTHESIS ON LANGUAGE INPUT

Lydia White⁹ agrees with Krashen when she argues that language acquisition is caused by learners understanding input, which is slightly beyond their current stage of knowledge, by means of context and other extra-linguistic cues, and that, while we should not try to provide input which specifically aims at the next stage, 'comprehensible' input is particularly beneficial. In this article it is suggested that there are a lot of problems with Krashen's input hypothesis, as currently formulated. Firstly, by concentrating on meaning and context, he misses the fact that certain aspects of grammar development in the learner are largely internally driven, and independent of context or meaning. Secondly, he overestimates the role and benefits of simplified input. Thirdly, Krashen feels that we can never really be sure what input is relevant to what stage, but this is due to the imprecision of

9. White, Lydia from Mc-Graw-Hill University – Article published on the Internet, page 1, 2006. She claims that input is the key-stone for language acquisition.



his formulation: once one incorporates a detailed theory of language, it is possible to come

up with a theory to identify precisely what aspects of input trigger development. Finally, there are circumstances where the second language (L2) input will not be able to show the learner how to retreat from certain non-target forms: the input hypothesis is geared to handling additions to intermediate grammars, rather than losses. I will argue that second-language acquisition theory should indeed include an input hypothesis, and, consequently, that we should try and tighten up Krashen's formulation to deal with these objections.

Long and Crookes¹⁰ introduce an explicitly psycholinguistic dimension into our discussion of syllabuses. When Long and Crookes say that analytic syllabuses "present the target language whole chunks at a time," and that these syllabuses rely on "learners' presumed ability to perceive regularities in the input," they are referring us to ideas first developed by Steve Krashen in the early 1980s.

Long and Crookes claim that more specifically, Krashen formulated a theory of second language acquisition (SLA) called Monitor Theory - Krashen, 1985. One of the central tenets of this theory is known as the "comprehensible input" hypothesis. This hypothesis states that learners acquire grammar and vocabulary by getting and understanding language that is slightly beyond their current level of competence. By guessing and inferring the meaning of linguistic information embedded in the communicative context, learners are able to comprehend grammar and vocabulary that would otherwise be too difficult for them to understand. This input is known as comprehensible input, or "input +language." Thus, learners gradually develop fluency by being exposed to $i+1$ in the target language.

10. Long and Crookes quote Krashen's theory on second language acquisition, SLA, called Monitor Theory. Krashen, pages 312 and 313, 1985. In Krashen's criterion, context and linguistic cues reinforce input work.



Two central questions must be answered about comprehensible input. First, “How do learners get the right kind of input?” Second, “Does providing comprehensible input guarantee that learners will learn the language they are exposed to?”

As far as Krashen is concerned, learners are essentially quite passive processors of whatever input they happen to be exposed to. Furthermore, Krashen believes that exposure to input + language is sufficient to guarantee acquisition. In contrast, Long, 1983, has suggested that while exposure to comprehensible input is certainly necessary, it is not by itself sufficient to ensure acquisition.

Arguing that learners cannot just be passive recipients of knowledge if they wish to acquire new language, Long suggests that learners must actively get the raw linguistic data they need from native speakers by engaging their interlocutors in a specific type of social interaction: repair. More specifically, Long argues that learners induce conversational partners to provide comprehensible input by initiating a range of repairs, including comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, verifications of meaning, definition requests, and expressions of lexical uncertainty.

To clarify and enhance her explanation, Pica asserts that the idea that speakers' conversational repair strategies function as a resource for the acquisition of a second language in both naturalistic and instructed contexts has since gained widespread currency in the SLA literature. Indeed, what enables learners to move beyond their current inter language receptive and expressive capacities when they need to understand unfamiliar linguistic input or when required to produce a



comprehensible message are opportunities to modify and restructure their interaction with their interlocutor until mutual comprehension is reached.

Extending the comprehensible input hypothesis, Swain¹¹ (1985 - 1995) further argues that learners must also produce comprehensible output in order to move their inter language from a semantic to a syntactic analysis of the second language input; in other words, in order to produce new language that is accurate. Learners have to move beyond getting the general gist of what something means. Producing new language items, therefore, forces learners to analyze new language in terms of its grammatical structure. According to this perspective on SLA, then, it is the large number of repairs that potentially make comprehensible talk that is initially too complex for learners to understand.

Krashen believes that formal learning is only of use to the learner in certain situations when she has the time to check her output. Thus he writes:

Our fluency in production is thus hypothesized to come from what we have 'picked up, what we have acquired, in natural communicative situations. Our 'formal knowledge' of a second language, the rules we learned in class and from texts, is not responsible for fluency, but only has the function of checking and making repairs on the output of the acquired system.

This checking function is carried out by what Krashen refers to as the 'Monitor'. It can only occur if three conditions are fulfilled.

Conditions:

1. The performer has to have enough time. Monitor use in rapid conversation may only

11. Swain. From Lexicon to Grammar, pages, 163 to 165, 1985. The writer conceptualizes input as a bridge from Vocabulary to Grammar.



disrupt communication; that is why over-use of the Monitor is counter-productive.

2. The performer has to be thinking about correctness. In many occasions, the speaker may be more concerned with what he is saying, rather than how he says it.

3. The performer has to know the rule. This is a problem on many levels:

a) The learner may not know the rule because:

- it has never been taught to him
- he has not reached the level at which the rule is taught
- the rule has not yet been formulated by linguists

b) The learner may not have properly learnt the rule because:

- there is some learning loss due to psychological processes
- the teacher may have taught the rule badly

c) The learner may apply the wrong rule because:

- the teacher may have taught the wrong rule: teachers often function with

out-of-date or partial grammars, and hand these down to their students



By and large, says Krashen, the Monitor will function best with simple rules, like the third person singular, but not with more complex ones, such as the grammatical shift demanded by Wh- questions, or the semantic rules underlying use of the articles in English.

Learners will be most likely to use the Monitor in formal exam situations, where their attention has been drawn to linguistic form, and where they have enough time. If all these conditions are fulfilled, the Monitor may be used, but may be used inaccurately.

As linguistics and language teaching are considered to be social sciences, regarding Krashen's input hypothesis, some critiques have come out. Some researchers have seen that Krashen believes that language is acquired through the learner's efforts to understand L2, rather than through their efforts to use it. Speaking and writing are simply the end products of the learner's attention to input. Krashen goes on to suggest that the learner needs to be provided with comprehensible input. In the real world, this is often done automatically:

- mothers use “mamanaise” or “motherese” when speaking to babies
- simplified language - concentration on the 'here-and-now'
- child 'reads the language off the context'
- foreigner talk
- teacher talk - teachers adapt language to level of students

In the classroom, it is, says Krashen, the teacher's business to provide a rich variety of language - just beyond the learner's present capacity to understand, so that he is forced to make an effort at comprehension. At the same time, the teacher provides contextual clues that aid the learner in his task.



We have seen that there are objections that have been made to Krashen's hypothesis.

1. Some critics have pointed out that if the learner is not asked to produce language, the teacher cannot know what his needs are, and therefore cannot provide appropriate material. So even if we accept Krashen's argument that only input leads to acquisition, we need output in order to provide the input. Note that in the experiment reported by Lightbown, the learners were largely responsible for choosing their own material.

2. Jacqueline Boulouffe and others suggest that the learner needs to produce language in order to learn it. Boulouffe holds that if we stick to the input method the learner will understand the language only at a superficial level; in particular, she/he will not be able to either understand or to produce language, which implicates the speaker's own judgements, feelings, beliefs, and so on as expressed through modality.¹²

In order to reach this level of understanding, the learner needs to struggle with the demands imposed by self-expression. The teacher must force the learner to produce as well as to understand. Ultimately, we understand through using language - I do not know what I mean until I've said it?

3. Lydia White criticizes the idea that input should be comprehensible. If we make understanding too easy, through contextualization, the learner will not make the effort necessary to appropriate the language - hence the tendency of learners in immersion programs to produce a “classroom pidgin.”¹³

12. Boulouffe, Jacqueline and others: Towards a Practical Language Learning Process, pages 209 and 210, 2004. She believes that language production conducts to learning.

13. White, Lydia. Critique to Krashen's hypothesis, pages 14 and 15, 2004. The writer is against students' minimum effort to learn a language.



In brief, Krashen's input hypothesis has usefully brought to the attention of the language teaching profession the need to provide a larger and richer range of language material than it has been customary to provide in the language classroom. There is no reason why all learners in one classroom should be working in the same text at the same time. Nor is it necessary to oversimplify texts to the extent that the learner is exposed to very little authentic language.

On the other hand, it certainly cannot be said that Krashen's belief that input alone is necessary is widely shared by other workers in the field. Nevertheless, we should bear in mind the Canadian experiment reported by Lightbown, which suggests that under some circumstances pure input methods are more effective than classroom-teacher methods.

Prior to closing this point, we compare Krashen's and Long's positions with respect to language acquisition through the following explanations: Krashen has argued that comprehensible input is so powerful that teachers should not waste class time teaching grammar explicitly in class. Instead, he recommends that teachers concentrate on having students communicate during class time and do grammar exercises as homework assignments. How do you react to this recommendation?

Long's position differs from Krashen's in that he sees learners as playing a much more active role in getting comprehensible input than Krashen feels is necessary.

Furthermore, he proposes a mechanism that learners can use to obtain the kind of input that is acquisitionally useful to them: conversational repairs. How might



teachers organize their teaching in such a way that learners have to repair each others' talk?

1.2. INTERACTION AS AN INNATE QUALITY

1.2.1. INTERACTION AND CHILDHOOD

Interaction is something natural in human beings and, therefore, it must be an essential and inseparable part of the language learning process because excessive quietness leads to preventing the achievement of the language learning process, provided that movement and communicative talk work as fuel that allows inter-actors performance. Psychologists and linguists have proved that interaction works consciously and unconsciously on the inter-actors' minds and seek to produce human relationship.

Interaction motivates learners of all ages and pushes them to do their best in order to achieve effective results from the language acquisition process in the light of a natural need to communicate or just socialize with others, activity that has proved to be an important part, especially when it comes to language-learning acquisition.

Aileen Ben¹⁴ claims that in Rummel's opinion, the nature of interaction hinges in child's social behaviour, which is the physiological, psychological, and sociological key to understand the very nature of children and teenagers. Accordingly, she thinks that human behaviour comes in many forms, such as blinking, eating, reading, dancing, shooting, rioting, and warring.

All these acts represent social interaction, which is an innate feature of human beings, given the fact that as soon as we are born, we start seeing, moving, and producing sounds, which

14 Ben, Aileen – University of Bristol – quotes R. J. Rummel's work. The Conflict Helix, pages 47 to 49, 2005. In her concept, human behavior derives from children's daily routine.



means that we start socializing in our surrounding environment. Rummel adds that this social behavior is not equal or standard for everybody, but unique. This principle of diversity in behavior has opened a path to the question, “What then distinguishes social behavior?” He replies himself by asserting that the behavior that is peculiarly social is oriented towards other selves. Such behavior connects to another as a perceiving, thinking, moral, intentional, and behaving person; it considers the intentional or rational meaning of the other's field of expression; it involves expectations about the other's acts and actions; and it manifests an intention to invoke in another self certain experiences and intentions. Later on he argues that not every action performed by man can be regarded as social behavior or social interaction; for example, thumbing, dodging, and weaving through a crowd is not usually social behavior, but it could be a step towards social behavior. Others are considered as mere physical objects, as human barriers with certain reflexes. Neither is keeping in step in a parade of social behavior.

Other marchers are physical objects with which to coordinate one's movements. Neither is a surgical operation social behavior. The patient is only a biophysical object with certain associated potentialities and dispositions. However, let the actor become involved with another's self, as a person pushing through a crowd recognizing a friend, a marcher believing another is trying to get him out of step, or a surgeon operating on his son, and the whole *meaning* of the situation changes.

The author affirms that once social interaction has been understood, it is time to define social acts, actions, and practices. A *social act* is any intention, aim, plan, purpose, and so on which encompasses another self. These may be affecting



another's emotions, intentions, or beliefs; or anticipating another's acts, actions, or practices. Example of social acts would be courtship, helping another run for a political office, teaching, buying a gift, or trying to embarrass an enemy.

Social actions, then, are directed towards accomplishing a social act. So long as their purpose is a social act, actions are social whether involving other selves or not, whether anticipating another's acts, actions, or practices. The actions of an adolescent running away from home and living in a commune for a year to prove his independence to his parents and those of a physicist working in an isolated laboratory for years on a secret weapon for U.S. defence are both social. And no less social are the actions of a girl combing her hair to look attractive for her date.

But there are non-social acts, such as aiming for a college degree, trying to enhance one's self-esteem, planning to go fishing, intending to do scientific research on the brain, and so on. No other self is involved in these acts, but may be involved in the associated actions. Are such actions social if the act is not? Of course, regardless of the act, associated actions are still social if oriented to another's feelings, beliefs, or intentions, or if they anticipate another's acts, actions, or practices. For example, in trying to achieve a college degree, usually a non-social act, we may have to consider a professor's perspective in answering an exam, or an adviser's personality before selecting him or her.

Finally, there are social practices. These are rules, norms, customs, habits, and the like that encompass or anticipate another person's emotions, thoughts, or intentions. Shaking hands, refusing to lie to others, or passing another on the right are examples. Not all practice, however, is social. Drinking and smoking habits can



be manifested while alone, and many norms can be practiced without thought to others, such as using the proper utensils when dining alone.

To close his study, Rummel goes to the target of the matter, when he specifically focuses on social interactions and conceptualizes them as the acts, actions, or practices of two or more people mutually oriented towards each other's selves; that is, any behavior that tries to affect or take account of each other's subjective experiences or intentions. This means that the parties to the social interaction must be aware of each other and have each other's self in mind. This does not mean being in sight of or directly behaving towards each other. Friends writing letters are socially interacting, as are enemy generals preparing opposing war plans. Social interaction is not defined by type of physical relation or behaviour, or by physical distance. It is a matter of a mutual subjective orientation towards each other. Thus even when no physical behavior is involved, as with two rivals deliberately ignoring each other's professional work, there is social interaction.

Moreover, social interaction requires a mutual orientation. The spying of one on another is not social interaction if the other is unaware. Nor do the behaviours of rapist and victim constitute social interaction if the victim is treated as a physical object; nor behaviour between guard and prisoner, torturer and tortured, machine gunner and enemy soldier. Indeed, wherever people treat each other as object, things, or animals, or consider each other as reflex machines or only cause-effect phenomena, there is no social interaction.

This approach matches human beings' innateness of learning by acting, which has been a necessity misunderstood by teachers and education authorities for various



decades, replacing quietness and a permanent sitting-position by movement, and productive talking orientated to generate information or socialize. The fundamental principle of interaction is social identity, which is the way a person categorizes him or herself in relation to an identifiable social group, such as the nation state, gender, ethnicity, class or profession. Social identities are multiple, changing and often in conflict with one another. They are connected to a large extent through the way people use language in discourse.

In other words, to implement and practice social interaction in the language classroom, teachers must be sure to meet with the various purposes to which language may be put. Linguistically and pragmatically speaking, we often tend to assume that the function of language is communication, but things are more complicated than that; language serves a number of diverse functions, only some of which can reasonably be regarded as communicative. These functions can be classified as follows:

- We pass on factual information to other people
- We try to persuade other people to do something
- We entertain ourselves and other people
- We express our membership in a particular group
- We express our individuality
- We express our moods and emotions
- We maintain good or bad relationships with other people
- We construct mental representations of the world

1.2.2. MENTAL AND PHYSICAL INTERACTION

Before focusing directly on mental and physical interaction, we consider worth remarking on Rummel's assertion related to interaction, which is understood as the performance of social acts, actions, and practices. It is common knowledge that mental and physical faculties are thoroughly reciprocal because they need of each other at every moment. This means that, we human beings are considered to be a



sophisticated machine in which the mind controls and orders every kind of movement executed by our body parts.

Lorain K. Obler and Kris Gjerlow¹⁵ – converge with Rummel’s thought in the sense that regards brain as the manager and the body parts as the factory workers. They remark that manager and factory workers must keep a mathematical coordination in order to perform a good job and optimize it day by day. To clarify their explanation, the authors think that it is necessary to understand at least superficially what neurology and neuro-linguistics are:

- Neuro motor, or neuro-muscular, pertaining to the effects of the nerve impulses or muscles

- Neuron: a specialized impulse-conduction cell that is the functional unit of the nerve system and consists of the cell-body and its process

- Neuro-linguistics is the study of how the brain permits us to acquire language and perform any learning-related activity. This statement is totally logical from the abstract theory about language structure to the belief that patterns, structures, and rules are manifested in the thorough learning process which is grounded and embodied in the brain.

In this sense, mental and physical interaction demands a strict coordination between mind and body; in this process, people’s minds control every movement and directly influence the development of any physical activity. In other words, it is the mind which influences a learner’s attitude that is ultimately the factor that determines the end result of physical activities. Obler and Gjerlow consider that if the learner’s attitude is positive, the

15.. Obler, Lorain K and Gjerlow, Kris. Language and the Brain. Cambridge University Press, page 21, 1998. In her opinion, body performance depends on brain.



performance result will be successful. This means that if the learner disciplines his/her mind to hard work and to deep concentration, the muscles and the body parts will get used to that sort of routine.

The authors conclude that their statement tackles on psychological and psycholinguistic aspects that depend on the motivation process to change and maintain a positive attitude so that the learner feels the appropriate environment to develop their in-class and extra-class activities according to their expectations through self-esteem, willingness, and determination.

1.2.3. INTERACTION AND CLASSROOM RAPPORT

The web source <http://www.bottledlovemessage.com/>¹⁶, which is a crucial factor for the achievement of successful learning results, because self-confidence depends on the classroom rapport. Gregg's concern has led him to create some ways to get the desired rapport. Gregg Hall entitled “10 ways to create a more exciting relationship.” Greg thinks that social interaction is essential within the language learning process.

However, we know that keeping a good rapport is quite difficult because negotiations could fail and rapport might turn weak, affecting the further development of the language classroom. From this premise Hall affirms that teachers must set a variability of strategies to keep rapport for long when he claims that most relationships are very exciting in the beginning but if you have been in your current relationship for a while you may have

6. The web source <http://www.bottlelove.com>. pages 2 and 3, 2006. Gregg Hall entitled “10 ways to create a more exciting relationship.” Gregg thinks that social interaction is essential within the language learning process.



already noticed that the initial excitement you experienced is starting to waiver and you and your partner may be settling into a dull routine. As a relationship progresses, one or both partners may be guilty of settling into complacency and may not strive to keep the element of excitement in their relationship. The following are a few tips for ensuring that your relationship stays as exciting as it was in the beginning.

Never underestimate the value of spontaneity in a relationship. Too often relationships lose their excitement because the mates fall into a routine that becomes boring as time goes by. Don't be afraid to suggest new activities in your relationship or to try new things on a whim. Being spontaneous doesn't have to involve big decisions; it can be as simple as picking up something new at the grocery store and trying a new recipe for dinner. Whatever you do, just let your instincts take over for a minute instead of relying on rationality.

Anything you do that is spontaneous may not work out as well as if you had planned out every last detail but just go with the flow and you'll find your relationship taking a turn for the better.

Exploring a new location together is another way to bring the excitement back into your relationship. Whether you plan an elaborate trip to an exotic location or just take the bus to a nearby city that you have never visited, your adventure together will help spice up your romance. Take your time exploring the new location and enjoy the foods and atmosphere that the new place has to offer. Exploring new cities can help bring the thrill back to your relationship.



Still another way to spice up a waning relationship is to sign up for an instructional class together, such as a cooking, dancing, or pottery class. Working together to learn a new skill will draw the two of you closer as you strive to accomplish a goal together. A class will enable you and your partner to interact in a new way. This new interaction will help to pull you out of a rut. Spending a night at a hotel is another way to restore the excitement in your relationship. Intimacy is very important in a relationship and if you and your partner have found that this aspect of your relationship has lost its spice, it's time to shake things up a bit. Choose a romantic hotel, preferably one with a cozy restaurant. Begin by having a wonderful candlelight dinner in the restaurant and then proceed to the room that you have reserved. Setting the mood with candles and dim lighting is also suggested. A night in a different location such as a romantic hotel will go a long way towards rekindling your intimate relationship. Another way to bring the excitement back into your relationship is to set up a date night. While you may see each other daily and even go out to dinner every Friday night, setting up a date night outside of your usual schedule will enhance your relationship. Don't just schedule a night to go out to dinner but treat each of these date nights as if they were first dates. Go all out getting yourself dressed up and take special care in your appearance. Prepare for your date night as if you were really trying to make a good first impression. Going out of your way to have at least one night of fun and romance a week will help add a little zing to your relationship. Giving your mate gifts for no reason at all is another way to get your relationship back on track. You may have lavished gifts on your partner early in the relationship but as the relationship progressed you may not have done so as frequently. Small,



meaningful gifts given just to make your partner happy will let them know that they are still always on your mind just as they were in the beginning of the relationship. The simple act of holding hands can also put excitement back into a relationship. This intimate gesture conveys not only a sense of security but also lets your partner know that you want to be close to him at all times. Many couples hold hands everywhere they go early in a relationship but don't do so later on. Try grabbing your partner's hand as you are out running errands together. They will be touched by the sentiment and will be happy to be sharing a sense of closeness with you again.

A kiss is still another way to bring the excitement back into your relationship. You may have gotten into the habit of giving your mate a kiss on the cheek or a quick peck on the lips when you see them after a long day of work. Trying kissing them with passion the next time you see them to catch them by surprise and really let you know not only how much you love them but how attractive you find them as well.

Having a common interest can also promote excitement in a relationship. If there is an activity that you both enjoy doing, make it something that the two of you do together often. For example, if you both enjoy hiking, make plans to go hiking every Saturday morning and each time you go out make it a little different by exploring a new location or setting new goals for yourselves. This will give the two of you a chance to reconnect while enjoying each other's company. Having a ritualistic activity that you and your partner enjoy together creates closeness and intimacy that can help put the excitement back into your relationship.

Offering your partner a massage when he /she is worn out and tired can also bring the excitement back to your relationship. A massage can be a very sensual and intimate experience. Additionally, offering a massage lets your partner know that you can see that he/she is stressed out and exhausted. He /she will appreciate



your putting him / her first in the relationship and this will help bring back the excitement in your relationship.

Over time a relationship may lose some of the excitement that it had in the very beginning. While this may be troublesome, it is also completely normal and also reversible. Noticing the lack of excitement in your relationship is the first step to restoring that excitement. It may take a little work but with a few simple actions you can be on your way to an exciting relationship.

1.3. RESOURCES TO PROMOTE AND ACHIEVE INTERACTION

1.3.1. MUSIC AND WHIMSICAL RESOURCES IN VOCABULARY TEACHING

Halpern¹⁷ states that there are so many factors that influence learning, but just a few are totally far-reaching and this is the case of sound and music. The author argues that when we think of music, the first thing that comes to mind is enjoyment. This way, its entertaining function is widespread in human activities, individually and collectively, provided that the sound of music brings into the world its magic power to motivate the mind when it is dormant, to soothe the soul when it is in turmoil, and to heal the body when it is impaired.

Based on the above argument, Wikipedia¹⁸ – lists some reasons for using songs in the language classroom, saying the following about songs:

- Are fun, accessible, relaxing and emotive
- Are analogous to adolescent motherese which means that we remember the song lyrics of our youth throughout our lives

17. Halpern. Factors that Determine Language Learning, pages 124 to 126, 1999. The author highlights the value of songs in the language classroom.

18. Wikipedia, The Teachable Faculties of Songs, pages 12 to 15, 2005. The article focuses on the pros of songs in the language classroom.



- They promote cultural literacy by making its tenets more accessible to learners
- They involve learners in the culture (songs), and provide identity
- They simplify learners' understanding
- They promote replying and humming to improve vocabulary
- They help set up close switching topics
- They are highly motivating, given the fact that music relieves stress

If music has proved to be a vital element to create motivation in the language classroom, no doubt it is also a key factor in the language acquisition process. In this sense, music has proved to be a vital element to create motivation in the language classroom. In this sense, Shostokovich¹⁹ declares that the most important point to keep in mind when using music as a complementary element for learning is that it should be an aid to learning rather than fun. The author recommends to use some music in the background to help students concentrate, it must be done at regular with wise choices, something like Hayden or Mozart or maybe Bach. Otherwise, the selection of abrasive or disharmonic music will distract students' concentration, while their brains try to make sense of the disharmony. But melodic music won't distract learners; the appropriate music will help to underline the nature of grammar. No doubt, the teacher's skills will be determinant to have students use their imagination to improve their second language. The writer points out that music involve hearing in that the notes and words are vocalized; they are picked up by the ear and sent to the brain for processing, synthesis, and future usage. More vocabulary is acquired, both through hearing

19. Shostokovich. Music is a Learning Resource, not Only Fun, pages 6 and 7, 1997. The writer regards music as a learning tool, rather than a funny one.



and reading the words Lems²⁰ focuses on the same approach and declares that in practical application, pop music is very helpful in language learning. These songs arise young folks' interest, and have a number of benefits: They introduce to conversations, statements, and questions; and they are sung more slowly and with pauses that allow words to "sink in"

1.3.2. REMARKING INDIVIDUAL'S PERSONALITY

As human beings are diverse by nature, every person is quite different in his or her way of acting, reacting, thinking, loving, hating, etc. This principle leads language teaching researchers and linguists as well as neuro-linguists and psycholinguists to understand that nobody learns exactly in the same way. Therein lies the difficulty of teaching human groups regardless of their age, origin, background, language, geographical situation, classroom situation, and of course, social and cultural context; from this point of view every person has a hidden ability and also weak skill or strong skills at the same time. Therefore, language teachers must solve this problem through creativity and variability of their classroom activities in order to satisfy all students' expectations and aspirations; this will result in a varied classroom environment where students feel comfortable and self-confident.

To clarify this topic, we consider worth focusing on Howard Gardner's theory called **multiple intelligences**, which proposes a new view of intelligence that is rapidly being incorporated in school curricula.

20. Lems. Ways to Select Teachable Music, pages 22 and 23, 2001. The author suggests some genres of music for teaching languages.



This digest discusses Gardner's studies ²¹ his definition of intelligence, the incorporation of the Theory of Multiple Intelligences into the classroom, and its role in alternative assessment practices. Gardner defines intelligence as "the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in a cultural setting" Gardner & Hatch,²² Using biological as well as cultural research formulated a list of ten intelligences. This new outlook on intelligence differs greatly from the traditional view that usually recognizes only two intelligences, verbal and computational. The ten intelligences are as follows:

Logical-Mathematical Intelligence

It consists of the ability to detect patterns, reason deductively and think logically. This intelligence is most often associated with scientific and mathematical thinking.

Linguistic Intelligence

It involves having a mastery of language. This intelligence includes the ability to effectively manipulate language to express oneself rhetorically or poetically. It also allows one to use language as means to remember information.

Spatial Intelligence

It gives one the ability to manipulate and create mental images in order to solve problems. This intelligence is not limited to visual domains-- Gardner notes that spatial intelligence is also formed in blind children.

Musical Intelligence

21. Gardner, Howard Theory of Multiple Intelligences, pages 32 to 36, 2003. The author suggests to consider individual skills.

22. Gardner & Hatch, Beyond Pedagogical Resources, pages 201 to 203, 1989. They focus on biological and cultural aspects that lead them to formulate the ten intelligences.



It encompasses the capability to recognize and compose musical pitches, tones, and rhythms (Auditory functions are required for a person to develop this intelligence in relation to pitch and tone, but it is not needed for the knowledge of rhythm).

Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence

It is the ability to use one's mental abilities to coordinate one's own bodily movements. This intelligence challenges the popular belief that mental and physical activity are unrelated.

The Personal Intelligences are divided into two groups:

Interpersonal intelligence

It is the ability to understand and discern the feelings and intentions of others

Intrapersonal intelligence

It is the ability to understand one's own feelings and motivations. The interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences are separated from each other. Nevertheless, because of their close association in most cultures, they are often linked together.

Naturalist intelligence

It deals with the study of natural environment, which is the ecology of the brain in coordination with the human nature. Children, for example, love the outdoors, animals, and field trips. More than this, though, young people are able to pick up on subtle differences in meanings.

Existentialist intelligence



It studies the way how children learn in the context where humankind stands in the “big

nature” That’s our existence. So, they ask, why are we here? What is our role in the world? This intelligence is tightly linked to the principles of philosophy.

Moral intelligence

It takes on ethics, humanity, and values of life. Its study is orientated to conduct affairs related to the principles of what are right and wrong behaviour, and the attempt to establish the difference between ethical and unethical acts, rather than on practical or legal ones.

Although the intelligences are anatomically separated from each other, Gardner claims that the ten intelligences very rarely operate independently. Rather, the intelligences are used concurrently and typically complement each other as individuals develop skills or solve problems. For example, a dancer can excel in his art only if he has 1) strong musical intelligence to understand the rhythm and variations of the music; 2) interpersonal intelligence to understand how he can inspire or emotionally move his audience through his movements, as well as 3) bodily-kinesthetic intelligence to provide him with the agility and coordination to complete the movements successfully.

In the author’s point of view, there is a basis for intelligence, which is why he argues that there is both a biological and cultural basis for the multiple intelligences. Neurobiological research indicates that learning is an outcome of the modifications in the synaptic connections between cells. Primary elements of different types of learning are found in particular areas of the brain where



corresponding transformations have occurred. Thus, various types of learning results in synaptic connections in different areas of the brain; for example, injury to the Broca's area of the brain will result in the loss of one's ability to verbally communicate using proper syntax. Nevertheless, this injury will not remove the patient's understanding of correct grammar and word usage.

In addition to biology, Gardner argues that culture also plays a large role in the development of the intelligences. All societies value different types of intelligences. The cultural value placed upon the ability to perform certain tasks provides the motivation to become skilled in those areas. Thus, while particular intelligences might be highly evolved in many people of one culture, those same intelligences might not be as developed in the individuals of another.

Naturally, no theory has ever been considered as totally perfect, provided that every scientific discovery, either theoretical or practical, comes along with its advantages and drawbacks. In this sense, accepting Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences has several implications for teachers in terms of classroom instruction. The theory states that all ten intelligences are needed to productively function in society. Teachers, therefore, should think of all intelligences as equally important. This is in great contrast to traditional education systems which typically place a strong emphasis on the development and use of verbal and mathematical intelligences. Thus, the Theory of Multiple Intelligences implies that educators should recognize and teach to a broader range of talents and skills.

Another implication is that teachers should structure the presentation of material in a style which engages most or all of the intelligences. For example, when teaching about the revolutionary war, a teacher can show students battle maps, play revolutionary war songs, organize a role play of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, and have the students read a novel about life during that period.



This kind of presentation not only excites students about learning, but it also allows a teacher to reinforce the same material in a variety of ways. By activating a wide assortment of intelligences, teaching in this manner can facilitate a deeper understanding of the subject material.

Everyone is born possessing the ten intelligences. Nevertheless, all students will come into the classroom with different sets of developed intelligences. This means that each child will have his own unique set of intellectual strengths and weaknesses. These sets determine how easy (or difficult) it is for a student to learn information when it is presented in a particular manner. This is commonly referred to as a learning style. Many learning styles can be found within one classroom. Therefore, it is impossible for a teacher to accommodate every lesson to all of the learning styles found within the classroom.

Nevertheless, the teacher can show students how to use their more developed intelligences to assist in the understanding of a subject which normally employs their weaker intelligences Lazear, ²³ For example, the teacher can suggest that an especially musically intelligent child learn about the revolutionary war by making up a song about what happened.

Gardner asserts that the correct application of multiple intelligences in the classroom demands a more authentic assessment, especially by the language teacher, and of course, professors of other curricular disciplines. To fulfil this goal, the education system has stressed the importance of developing mathematical and linguistic intelligences, usually basing the student success on measured skills in those two intelligences. Supporters of Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences believe that this emphasis is unfair. Children whose musical intelligences are highly developed, for example, may be overlooked for

23. Lazear. Discovering the Two Sides of Human Intelligence, pages 109 to 111, 1992. The author recommends to focus on both weak and strong skills.



gifted programs or may be placed in a special education class because they do not have the required math or language scores. Teachers must seek to assess their students' learning in ways which will give an accurate overview of their strengths and weaknesses.

As children do not all learn in the same way, they cannot be accurately assessed in a uniform fashion. Therefore, it is important that a teacher create an "intelligence profile" for each student. Knowing how each student learns will allow the teacher to properly assess the child's progress. This individualized evaluation practice will allow a teacher to make more informed decisions on what to teach and how to present information.

Traditional tests require students to show their knowledge in a predetermined manner. Supporters of Gardner's theory claim that a better approach to assessment is to allow students to explain the material in their own ways by using the different intelligences. Preferred assessment methods include student portfolios, independent projects, student journals, and creative tasks.

1.3.3. VOCABULARY INTERACTION AND BODY LANGUAGE

From the kinaesthetic point of view, body language means dealing with interaction because every time we move any part of the body or any muscle, we produce movement which, when coordinated with ideas, results in bodily interaction. Body language has fairly proved to be a valuable instrument to teach vocabulary not only as isolated words, but principally in context. Under this perspective, we can teach verbs, nouns, adjectives and even adverbs associated with a variety of situational contexts; additionally, body language becomes a problem-solving tool when there



are inconveniences in language interpretation because many mime, gestures, and body movements are universal.

Gordon Wainwright²⁴ affirms that gestures reflect the way our body language can achieve real eloquence. He adds that eye contact, facial expression, and head movements, though of vital importance, have certain limitations due to the fact that they can create non-verbal ambiguity. Actually, gestures permit a degree of expressiveness and subtlety that are not possible with other aspects of non-verbal communication, despite their interpretative limitation. Wainwright asserts that it is the use of gestures that convey meaning that most people think of when they talk about body language.

In this respect, some writers have attempted to classify gestures by categories. For example, Michael Argyle²⁵ has suggested that there are five different functions that gestures can carry out; namely, illustrations and other speech-linked signals and sign movements which express emotions, movements which express personality, and movements which are used in various religious and other rituals. On the other hand, Paul Eckman and Wallace Friesen²⁶ suggested that there are five groupings split up as follows:

- Emblems: movements that are substitutes for words
- Illustrators: movements that accompany speech
- Regulators: movements that maintain or signal a change in a person's listening and speaking role
- Adaptors: movements, such as scratching one's head, or rubbing one's hands or

24. Wainwright, Gordon. Body Language, Preface and pages 5 to 9. NTC Publishing Group, London, 1996, England. He views body language as a potential teaching resource.

25. Argyle, Michael. The Role of Gestures in Language Teaching, pages 178 and 179, 2007. In his concept, gestures replace native language effectively.

26. Eckman, Paul and Friesen, Wallace. Movements to Teach Language, pages 60 to 62, 2006. They advise us about the importance of movements and their diversity.



fiddling with objects which tend to cast light upon a person’s emotional state

- Affect displays: movements which more directly reveal emotions, as facial expressions do

However, gestures can also be used to express a range of attitudes, emotions, and other messages. In this perspective, Michael Argyle (2007) re-takes the theme and quotes a number of conventional gestures, which seem to have almost universal meanings. For example, when we shake the fist to show anger, rubbing the palms together in anticipation, clapping them as a sign of approval; raising one’s hand to gain attention, yawning out of boredom, patting someone on the back to encourage them, and rubbing the stomach to indicate hunger.

Accordingly, the role of the above-described gestures depends on their psychology because the different kinds of gestures obey some psychological factors. For example, personality has marked effect upon the numbers and varieties of gestures used. Some of the research done in this respect has reported that the majority of women who sit with their knees and feet together with legs extended have a personality associated with the desire of neatness and orderliness in work, a liking for making plans, a dislike of change and uncertainty and a preference for organizing life according to a rigid schedule. Other research has found that when individuals are listening to a physically handicapped speaker they make fewer and smaller gestures. This may be caused by some uncertainty about how to interact with a disabled person.



Other research has shown that where two people in a conversation use the same kind of gestures and body movements, they will perceive themselves as being similar and will like each other better. From this study, it may also be concluded that where people are trying to communicate, similarities in gesturing styles may be helpful. Such similarities can provide a background of rapport which may be even consciously noticed.

The writer concludes that open and positive gestures and body movements are more influential when seeking to persuade someone to one's point of view. This means that openness and confidence in movement are consistently rated by participants in experiments as being more active, positive, and potent than close or hesitant gestures and body movements.



CHAPTER TWO

2. TRENDS IN VOCABULARY TEACHING

2.1. CONTRAST AMONG VOCABULARY TEACHING THEORIES

Much of what is said nowadays on the teaching and learning of vocabulary has been around for a very long time. Let us just remember both the English philosopher John Locke²⁷ and our humanist educationalist and reformer Jan Amos Comenius²⁸ who urged that specific words were the best described by pictures rather than by paraphrase or definition. These ideas may be seen as precursors of many present-day teaching materials and modern learners' dictionaries. Francois Gouin,²⁹ discontented with unsuccessful attempts to learn German vocabulary, in 1880, came up with a new system for learning vocabulary, which consisted of arranging words into sets corresponding to typical sequences of actions and processes; which strikingly resembles the present-day schema theory.

The well-known contemporary experts Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy³⁰ claim that the history and development of vocabulary teaching is not so much one of old insights

27. Locke, John . Remedies of the Imperfection and Abuse of Words, page 6. The author intends to polish the language lexicon, 1690.

28. Comenius, Jan Amos. Traditional Words of the Language Classroom, pages 7 and 8. He provides teachers with a recommendable language corpus to be used in the English language classroom, 1658.

29. Gouin , Francois. The Help of Dictionaries in Language Teaching, page 82 to 84. He created lexical sets based on actions, 1880.

30. Carter, Ronald and McCarthy, Michael. Vocabulary in Language Teaching, pages 102 to 105. They focus on the continuous evolution of methods, techniques, and materials to teach vocabulary, 1991.



leading to new ones usually used in language teaching; on the other hand, we have to be aware of the developments that have improved the methods, techniques and materials of vocabulary teaching. But it has been tackled by many authors on both traditionally and communicative approaches. Thus, a sequential series of vocabulary teaching approaches has been established chronologically from 1945 to 2007, which is headed by the Structural approach, which originated in American structural linguistics, with its emphasis on phonology and grammar patterning, dominated in the 1940s, 50s, and 60s and considerably suppressed the importance of vocabulary in the teaching of foreign languages. Here we can quote Fries C.C³¹, who thought that the problem of learning a new language was not learning its vocabulary, but mastering its sound system and grammatical structure: all the learner needs at first is enough basic vocabulary to practice the syntactic structures. In language there are four different kinds of words: function words, substitute words, words of negative/affirmative distribution, and content words. The first three of these must be thoroughly mastered with only a small number of content words needed. Thus structuralism came into light as branch of linguistic research by Noam Chomsky³² (1945); this approach was accompanied by contrastive analysis of languages. In practice this meant that the main problem of learning a new vocabulary lied on how much it resembled, or differed from, the learner's mother tongue. These two techniques, backed by behavioural psychology gave rise to the audio-lingual method, which again diminished emphasis on vocabulary teaching and instead promoted the need for a good command of grammatical structure. There are some logical reasons for this approach:

31. C.C ,Fries. Graded Vocabulary, pages 293 and 294. On his criterion, vocabulary learning depends on Phonology and Syntax, 1945.



32. Chomsky, Noam. Reflections on Language, pages 8 and 9. His concern is centred on vital differences of languages, 1945.

1. It cannot be predicted very well what vocabulary learners will need.
2. Emphasizing vocabulary makes learners believe that language learning means just the accumulation of words.
3. Too much vocabulary teaching may result in difficulty in recalling the learned words.
4. When mother tongue is acquired, it is done with a limited vocabulary until structural patterns are more or less mastered.

In conclusion, during the period 1945-1970, vocabulary, as a component of language teaching, was only of peripheral interest both in Europe and in America.

Later on, in the 70s – Wilkins pioneered the advent of lexical semantics in vocabulary teaching. In fact, this author seems to have been the first to notice that the structuralist approach was most important when there was no pressing need to learn a language quickly and he brought meaning into the focus of attention by developing the notional/functional syllabus: “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed,” Wilkins³³. His main merit is his effort to see vocabulary teaching through the prism of lexical semantics. In his opinion, lexical semantics:

1. Helps us to understand the process of translation.
2. Enables us to organize the lexicon, which is necessary because words are not learned as isolated items
3. The study of sense-relations enables us to grasp the full meaning of words.



33. Wilkins. Lexical Semantics, pages 62 and 63. He thinks that the key to learn vocabulary is word association, 1972.

Approximately at the same time, Twaddell³⁴ claimed that it was impossible to teach learners all the words they needed to know, it was important to teach them guessing strategies that would enable them to work out the meanings of unknown words and eliminate their reliance on dictionaries. So, from this point, vocabulary learning began to be seen as a language *skill* in which the learner is actively involved, and this meant a significant shift from static vocabulary learning in terms of word lists. It was generally accepted that extensive reading played an important part in enlarging vocabulary. Donley³⁵ held that words should be learned both in context and in contrast.

The relationship between thought and words started to be viewed as a dynamic process, with the focus of attention being transferred to studying the way in which the mother tongue is acquired as a means to understanding the process of second/foreign language acquisition. It meant a further departure from the “vocabulary-control approach” to a concern with the acquisition of meaning.

Dorothy Brown³⁶ pointed out the importance of collocation in an article on structural clustering in the lexicon. Nilsen³⁷ proposed principles for teaching vocabulary in stages that is, in hierarchies, series, cycles, etc.

In brief, the memorable words from the 1970s are notional/functional, communicative

purpose. Interests in vocabulary has merged in a direct relationship with learner's needs.

34. Twaddell. The Key to Word Election , page 34. For him , a percentage of words does the understanding work , 1973.

35. Donley. How to Expand Vocabulary. Preface and page 1. He asserts that contexts and opposites make lexicon cues, 1974.



36. Brown, Dorothy. Structural Clustering in the Lexicon, page 1. He thinks that collocation is a good teaching guidance, 1975.

37. Nilsen. Principles for Teaching Vocabulary in Stages, pages 7 and 8. He thinks that collocation is a good teaching guidance, 1976.

Several articles appeared that clearly promoted vocabulary as a skill in its own right – not

an aspect of language subordinated to grammar and not an appendix to reading and listening comprehension either.

Judd³⁸ advocated that a lot of vocabulary should be taught as early as possible in a natural linguistic context, because words taught in isolation are generally not retained. She stressed that words should be meaningful to the learner and that words should be reviewed and revised constantly; without this the learner cannot get to know their manifold Polysemic and stylistic characteristics. It can be said that this article laid the foundations for fully recognizing vocabulary as a resource for communication. To be meaningful and to be communicative were two key objectives that began to influence vocabulary studies more and more.

By the end of the 1970s the pivotal role of vocabulary in language teaching had been assured, insights from lexical semantics incorporated notions such as sense-relations and collocation into teaching materials; the teaching became learner-centred and the lexicon started to be utilized for students' needs and for strategic use in achieving communicative goals.

In the beginning of the next decade, Nation³⁹ swerved research into vocabulary learning and discussed the usefulness of word-list learning and learning from context.



38. Judd. The Value of Vocabulary in Linguistic Context, page 99. She considers that there is no context without vocabulary , 1978.

39. Nation. Contrast Between Word-List and Context, pages 13 and 14. He contrasts the effectiveness of the two situations, 1982.

Immediately, Wallace⁴⁰ analyzed the symptoms of bad vocabulary teaching and learning: an inability to retrieve taught vocabulary, inappropriate use of vocabulary, applying the wrong degree of formality and non-idiomatic use of vocabulary.

Plainly speaking, in Wallace's view, the objective is to know a word **so** that it may be recognized, recalled at will, related to an object or a concept, correctly used, pronounced and spelt, appropriately collocated, used at the right level of formality and with awareness of its connotations and associations.

In essence, Wallace establishes a set of principles for remedying poor teaching technique. He recommends:

- meaningful presentation of vocabulary in real situations and contexts;
- encouraging – inferencing;
- using realia, pictures, and mime in presentations;
- focusing of attention by the teacher and activating the learner's background knowledge.

In addition, Wallace encourages students to determine for themselves meaningfulness in words, and in relationships between words, which they encounter in texts. This is a view which is concordant with the emerging trend towards individualization and self-management in language learning.

Allen⁴¹ also emphasizes the need for active engagement of the learner, and the importance



40. Wallace. Vices of Vocabulary Teaching, pages 182 and 193. He emphasises on the effects of wrong vocabulary, 1982.

41. Allen. Ways to Engage Learners in Vocabulary Learning, pages 2 and 3. He suggests how to involve students in learning, 1983.

of proceeding from meaning to words. He further stresses the existence of a social and cultural dimension to vocabulary teaching.

Rivers⁴² draws attention to the discrepancy between standard word frequency lists and individuals' actual needs: learners must eventually develop their own vocabularies. She

relates the retention of vocabulary directly to purposes and goals: students have very

personal semantic networks into which they process what they find to be useful.

By the 1990s, a team of researchers of the universities of Collins and Birmingham created the new approach called “Emergence of Computer-Based Research,” which has allowed language teachers world-wide to see the development of both, a new view of language and computer technology associated with it in the last decade on. The computational analysis of language has revealed unsuspected patterns of form and use which cannot be accommodated within a traditional descriptive system. This computer-based programme has influenced the design of both dictionaries and teaching materials. This recent research has done this by describing linguistic phenomena as they are encountered in everyday contexts and in extended stretches of discourse. Multi-word “chunks” are the way to go in understanding colloquial language and computers; they are a huge aid in getting there. But there are still many issues in language which computers cannot yet handle.



2.2. THE ROLE OF VOCABULARY IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the traditional language teaching system, vocabulary has been regarded as one more isolated component of language. Though teachers found that they could not teach a

42. Rivers. Standard Word and Own Knowledge, page 5. She criticizes the difference found in standard word lists, 1983.

language without vocabulary, nobody has been concerned about working out an efficient way of teaching it, and most teachers do it by using word-listings, which hardly helps to teach grammar structures and to nominate single objects. In the late decades, linguists and language researchers have considered language as a set of living components, which has led investigators to compare it with other living creatures such as human beings and animals with flesh, a skeleton, voice, brain and even blood. In this sense, Jan Wolf (2003) decomposes language in these terms:

- flesh – vocabulary
- skeleton – grammar
- voice – pronunciation
- brain – language skills
- blood – culture

Wolf goes further on stating that the above-mentioned components co-exist and contribute each other to make an inseparable whole, within which vocabulary plays an important role in language formation. In this virtue, the author claims that in the way there is no body with flesh, there is no language without words.

In this respect, Jack Richards⁴³ focuses on the role of vocabulary within the language teaching-learning process, which in his criterion has never aroused the



same degree of interest within language teaching as have the other language issues, such as grammatical competence, contrastive analysis, or language skills.

Richards adds that the apparent

43. Richards, Jack. Vocabulary in Applied Linguistics, page 11. He thinks there's been negligence in language teaching, 1975.

neglect of vocabulary reflects the effects of trends in linguistic theory. Leech (1974) and Anthony⁴⁴ assert that word has been integrated word as a candidate for script theorizing and model building thanks to linguistics, which has valued the role of vocabulary in the syllabus in the light of assumptions and findings of theoretical and applied linguistics. They claim that the knowledge assumed by the lexical competence offered is a frame of reference for the determination of objectives for vocabulary teaching and for the assessment of teaching techniques designed to commit these objectives.

However, the theoretical concerns of linguists have centred their attention in syllabus design in two ways. Firstly, since such disciplines have as their goal, the explanation of the nature of language, the understanding of the way it is acquired, we have to start looking at disciplines such as linguistics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics in order to achieve a better understanding of questions like, “What does it mean to know word?,” “How are words remembered?,” “What are the social dimensions of word usage?,” and so on. Inevitable, this information will turn out this issue into much more complex information than we might intuitively have supposed; it would become inconclusive because of the changing state of knowledge and theory in the above-mentioned disciplines, which have allowed to include some vocabulary teaching techniques, such as word frequency, vocabulary growth in native speakers, collocation, register, case relations, underlying forms, word association and semantic structure.

Richards adds that vocabulary is a morphological, lexical, semantic, and linguistic issue which is regarded as an interconnected system. From this point of view, he



deduces that teaching pure vocabulary is a utopia because it is always related to language skills,

44. Leech. 1974 and Anthony. Words as a Living Part of Linguistics, pages 22 and 23. For them, language is dynamic, 1975.

grammar, pronunciation, spelling, and so on. The author argues that learning a new language means learning how to communicate in it and to achieve this goal it is imperative to manage the essential part of the language, that is, vocabulary; he adds that there is no sense in teaching or learning unrelated words which tell nothing, and demand a lot of effort.

In this respect John Flower and Michael Bernian⁴⁵ assert that vocabulary management is the key to message understanding, because, if the learner makes a grammar mistake, it may be wrong but usually people can understand or interpret what he/she intends to mean if not exactly but approximately; but if he/she doesn't know the exact word it is quite improbable that the message may be understood, so they state that the role of vocabulary turns relevant when it is taught in the following ways:

- systematically
- regularly
- personally

2.3. RECIPROCITY BETWEEN VOCABULARY AND OTHER LANGUAGE SKILLS

Flower and Bernian's statement regarding the key role of vocabulary in language teaching has been re-affirmed by Paul Nation and James Coady⁴⁶ in their study "Vocabulary and



45. Flower, John and Bernian, Michael. The Multiple Function of Vocabulary in Linguistics, pages 304 to 307. In their opinion, the effective secret of learning lies on how the language teacher administrates vocabulary, 1989.

46. Nation, Paul and Coady, James. Vocabulary and Reading, pages 155 to 157. They emphasize on the keenness of vocabulary and reading and their mutual contribution, 1985.

Reading,” in which they discuss the relationship of vocabulary with reading with an emphasis on reviewing the relevant research related to guessing as well as learning vocabulary in context. The authors centre their study on the effects of vocabulary knowledge on reading and then on how reading increases vocabulary knowledge. This means that there is a mutual co-operation between vocabulary and reading, while the first one helps by providing comprehension and logical interpretation, the second element contributes through vocabulary expansion and word understanding.

Nation and Coady go further when they claim that vocabulary learning is essential not only for reading but also for the other language skills and sub-skills. Thus, when it comes to writing vocabulary is the main source of this skill because it demands from a certain corpus of words which are syntactically woven in order to provide messages with common sense.

In this virtue, the authors claim that it is essential to distinguish some basic principles to teach vocabulary based on the potential reader, which leads the writer to plan in advance what kind of vocabulary to use; for example, focal vocabulary,



which is a specialized set of terms that is particularly important to a certain group, those with particular focuses of experience on activity. On so doing, it is imperative to take into account the gradual development of the learner's lexicon, which is known as vocabulary growth that starts in the infancy phase and requires no effort, given the fact that infants hear words and mimic them, eventually associating them with objects and actions. Thus, in first grade, an advantaged student knows about twice as many words as a disadvantaged student. Generally, this gap does not tighten. This translates into a wide range of vocabulary size by age five or six, at which time an English-speaking child will know about 2,500–5,000 words. An average student learns some 3,000 words per year, or approximately eight words per day. After leaving school vocabulary growth plateaus, learners may then expand their vocabularies by reading, playing word games, participating in vocabulary programs, etc. The authors add that to successfully complete this phase, it is necessary to distinguish between passive and active vocabulary which requires a lot of practice and context connections for us to learn it well. A rough grouping of words we understand when we hear them encompasses our "passive" vocabulary, whereas our "active" vocabulary is made up of words that come to our mind immediately when we have to use them in a sentence, as we speak. In this case, we often have to come up with a word in the timeframe of milliseconds, so one has to know it well, often in combinations with other words in phrases, where it is commonly used. The authors conclude that all language skills, besides of grammar, pronunciation and culture co-exist with vocabulary and there is a high rate of reciprocity between each other, where each of them help grow vocabulary rate, but they state that vocabulary gives more than what it receives.



2.4. IDEAS AND SUGGESTIONS TO TEACH VOCABULARY

2.4.1. GEOGRAPHICAL INFLUENCE IN VOCABULARY TEACHING

Vocabulary is the most affected language element within geographic linguistics, for it is lexicon changes that give place to dialectology in their speech-form distinction from community to community, region to region or nation to nation which is due to cultural idiosyncrasy of every linguistic community. This means that it is culture and its components which sponsor the coining of words Gonzalez Bernal⁴⁷.

In this respect, Kisho Anamuru⁴⁸ suggests a definite quantum of vocabulary across language communities, which consists in the arrival at a definite number of vocabulary items for a particular age group that is applicable to all languages and in all linguistic communities. This is so for two reasons: firstly, the results of studies conducted so far can be further improved; secondly, the stage of development of each language on various counts may also have an impact.

The distinctions in the meanings of words may be another factor because every community is the absolute owner of a given idiosyncrasy where the use of culture by human beings gives place to the origin of new words, or the change of meaning of already-existing words in the light of their sense of connotation, which, in turn, depends on the individual's emotion and psychological condition.

Anamuru assumes that a language has a total vocabulary that stands for an approximate amount of words, which cannot actually be exactly defined compared to dialectics and specifically with the negation of negation law, which consists in the gradual decaying of some elements contrasted with the coming up of others. From this perspective, it is not just the geographical location that determines the language varieties, but also time. However, the author claims that a strong reason for language variety hinges in determining if the place is monolingual, bilingual or multilingual; therefore, she suggests consulting Richards

47 Gonzalez Bernal. Lecture Adaptation to Vocabulary Teaching, pages 1 to 4. He claims that vocabulary comes into light thanks to culture, 2004.

48. Kisho Anamuru. Lecture Early Stages in Vocabulary Learning, pages 412 and 413. She focuses on how vocabulary expands by means of natural language sources, 2005.



and Schmidt's Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics⁴⁹ in which they focus on three types of linguistic communities.

A Monolingual community is a place which inhabitants speak only one language and, therefore, the introduction of a second language is in disadvantage with respect to the first one because of the inhabitants' linguistic habit. Thereby, the learning process of a foreign language turns difficult because people are used to speaking and using their own language, which means that the time of learning a new language is really short. Naturally, this fact turns the foreign language use into a passive process caused in some cases by language interference as well.

A Bilingual community is characterized by the fact that its inhabitants speak and practice two languages as a means of communication, which is a norm in the majority of linguistic communities. This does not mean at all that individuals have exactly the same level of knowledge of the two languages; therefore, there is always a predominance of one of them because the practice of the two languages does not keep an exact rate of usage which causes one of them to predominate. For instance, children, women, or other people who stay more time at home tend to use a community or regional language contrasted with the one they use in school, whereas working people mostly use their national language in comparison with the time they use the other language at home when talking to their family members or neighbours.

49. Richards and Schmidt's Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, pages 81 and 82. They provide the adequate terms, so that language teachers can clarify explanations, 2002.



A Multilingual community represents a group of speakers who use and know three or more languages, as in the case of bilingual communities, these people don't know all the languages equally well. The authors assert that there may be the following cases:

- i. speak and understand one language best,
- ii. be able to write only one language,
- iii. use each language in different types of situations, for example, one language at home, another at work, another for business and another for arrangements,
- iv. use each language for different communicative purposes, say, one language for talking about science, another for religious purposes and another for social gatherings.

On the other hand, Schmidt claims that in some communities business or work are the factors that turn people into multilingual individuals. In synthesis, bilingual and multilingual communities provides facilities for the learning of a new language, either because inhabitants are trained to it or because they find some similarity between one of the languages they know and the one they are staring to learn.

2.4.2. SETTINGS TO TEACH VOCABULARY

The continuous evolution of language teaching approaches, techniques, and strategies has led linguists and language researchers to radically change the concept of language methodology in several respects. Contrarily to the limited situational context that comprised the single classroom environment and the bibliographic content of language programmes, in present days, language teachers



use both internal and external settings to teach languages and specifically to teach vocabulary because it is made up of words, which, when logically chained and woven, produce communication. Accordingly, communication deals with real life that involves a variety of settings depending on how individuals act, think and interact.

Liu Chen⁵⁰ focuses on communication as a dynamic phenomenon that demands movement and constant connection between human beings; it cannot be circumscribed to a single place or situation. From this point of view, adds Chen, it is not possible to establish a definite list of settings because they change continuously according to each person and each situation. In this sense, her statement converges with the new educational approaches that combine the new knowledge with the previous or world knowledge and suggest a mixture of themes for the elaboration of syllabuses on the aim to meet with a double educational role, provide learners with more general knowledge and provide learners with the ability and the material to communicate in a new language. Chen asserts that to achieve this new challenge in vocabulary teaching, the classroom must have various scenarios.

In this respect, bibliographic language patterns and passive methodology left behind, being replaced by interactive and communicative approaches that widen the classroom settings by opening new scenarios to the language learning process, such as direct or indirect contact with native speakers, the indirect means are related to Internet chats, e-mails or pictures and audio, whereas direct means are native speakers in person, outings, tours and other visits to a variety of scenarios. In so doing, learners not only memorise words, phrases, or sentences,

50 Chen, Liu. The Mysteries of Language Life, pages 167 and 168. He affirms that vocabulary enables the social connection of human beings for their daily performance. Editors, Environment Publishers, New York, The United States, 2004.



and someone else's environments, but they have the opportunity to learn while experiencing and doing.

Chen concludes that as all things, touchable or untouchable, natural or artificial, new or old, have been given a name, but these things are not only labelled by a word, but they stand for a double meaning, the denotation consisting of the general or nominal meaning, and the connotation or hidden meaning. This means that communicative and interactive approaches are closely related to real life situations that involve not only the strict methodological procedure, but the world in which learners live and act.

2.4.3. DEVISING AND CREATING SUITABLE MATERIAL

Actually, devising vocabulary teaching material is an entirely creative activity that goes from a single hand-out, or slip, or a piece of wood, metal or a single bone to state-of-art electronic devices or technically-made manual materials which are costly and rare, specially in developing countries like Ecuador. However, highly efficient materials are quite difficult to find even in countries where language teaching material designing is a significant industry because there is the belief that hardly-found and attention-holding materials lead to efficient learning because they motivate learners and conduct them to do their best. However, the lack of sophisticated material is not a good excuse for not teaching vocabulary efficiently because every handy material could be useful if used methodologically and adequately. From this perspective, it is the teacher who must devise the materials, considering that some of them do not imply any labour such is the case of things of the surrounding environment, namely parts of a house, learners' clothing, parts of the body, home appliances, kitchen utensils and natural objects known as realia or just ready made posters or pictures which are incredible efficient within language



teaching due to the unique characteristic that the language of colour and form is universal.

The above stated contrasts drastically with the traditional belief and approach that the way of learning vocabulary consisted in listing vocabulary items in chronological order and, as they were learned, a mother tongue equivalent was then attached to them. However, this system is out-dated, because it lacks any contextualisation and later vocabulary additions are not easy to incorporate. It is far better that students themselves select topic /context / situation areas and assign to category sheets, cross-referenced index cards or, much more usually nowadays, to key-worded computer files, which can easily be added to as required. Visual diagrams, such as word trees, can be used, but they have more value for teaching than for student records.

In order to achieve the expected objectives in vocabulary teaching by applying suitable and attention-holding materials, Steve Shaken⁵¹ presents his study that focuses on how to programme vocabulary teaching sessions. In this respect he states that most traditional EFL textbooks have modules designed to increase vocabulary stores.

Although there are many different techniques for teaching vocabulary, it can be difficult for students to effectively increase their stock of new words through mainstream approaches; new words are most often simply acquired through use. In this respect, it is somewhat similar to developing reading skills.

51. Shaken, Steve. The Essence of Class Planning, pages 188 and 189. He thinks that language must be schematically programmed. McMillan, The United States, 2003.



The author argues that traditional curricula define intensive reading as reading carefully, or in detail, for an exact understanding of the text, while extensive reading is simply reading for pleasure and general understanding every detail. Schakne has put into play his project of planning and selecting material to teach vocabulary in a well-known school in Beijing, China, prepares its students for vocabulary sections of standardized tests by making them memorize long lists of words; the words are culled from previous exams and are occasionally recycled, so at worst one gets practice in the areas of vocabulary commonly tested. Needless to say, this may be somewhat effective for test performance, but most of the words are forgotten soon after the test. Vocabulary lists have many drawbacks, notably, they are not contextualized and that many items are not relevant to students and, thus, rarely used. Some textbooks “chunk” vocabulary; that is, they group vocabulary items in specifically defined categories, such as colours, vegetables, or home furnishings.

This may have the advantage over randomly selected vocabulary in that, sometimes, vocabulary items in categories reinforce each other, which makes them easier to learn. Still, the vocabulary groups may not be relevant to certain students and, hence, go unused and unassimilated.

Jeremy Harmer⁵² cites the principles of frequency and coverage which involve how often words occur in the language and how many different meanings a root word can cover; for example, play being taught with playboy, Play Station, playbook and so on. This system, however, is also flawed as it often ignores topic, function, structure, and the need of individual students.

52 Harmer, Jeremy. The Predominance of Words in English Language, pages 95 to 98. He highlights the frequency of words in different contexts. United Kingdom, 1998.



Schakne points out that discovery techniques go beyond simple modelling, explanation, mime, and translation; instead of simply furnishing meaning, discovery techniques also ask students to discover how the language works. The difference can be illustrated by looking at questions on a reading or listening comprehension evaluation that measure type 1 and type 2 skills. Type 1 questions simply ask students to pick out clearly stated information from a written or spoken passage, while type 2 questions demand students understand information that isn't always directly stated, such as recognizing discourse markers, getting meaning from context, and interpreting attitude and opinion, information that requires students to possess a greater mastery and knowledge of the internal workings of a language. Similarly, discovery techniques have students look at language from different angles, not just from a semantic point of view. Students may be presented language and asked the time framework—is it describing the past, present or future?

Students may be asked to note instances of adjectives and prepositions found in a written or spoken descriptive passage. Discovery techniques shift the emphasis from the teacher to students and invites them to use their reasoning processes and problem solving skills to learn the subtle nuances of the language and, hence, to mimic the psycholinguistic approach utilized by native language learners.

The above statement is reinforced by Ben Simon⁵³ when he states that meta-cognition combines various attended thinking and reflective processes, resulting in thinking about thinking, that is: **thinking what to do and thinking how to do it**. This process can be divided into five primary components: (1) preparing and planning for learning, (2) selecting

53. Simon, Ben. Meta-Cognition a Key Element in Vocabulary Teaching, pages 7 and 8. He criticizes mechanization of teaching and proposes a reasoning-based process. Tuttle Language Library, Fourth Edition, Tokyo, 2005.



and using learning strategies, (3) monitoring strategy use, (4) orchestrating various strategies, and (5) evaluating strategy use and learning. These five areas reveal that preparation and planning are important meta-cognitive skills that can improve student learning. By engaging in preparation and planning in relation to a learning goal, students are thinking about what they need or want to accomplish and how they intend to go about accomplishing it. Teachers can promote this reflection by being explicit about the particular learning goals they have set for the class and guiding the students in setting their own learning goals. The more clearly articulated the goal, the easier it will be for the learners to measure their progress. The teacher might set a goal for the students of mastering the vocabulary from a particular chapter in the textbook.

In this respect, Simon suggests the use of some material to help students learn vocabulary, which are called concept cards which are similar to flash cards, but result in students learning more than just definitions.

Concept cards encourage students to look at words in context, study the connotations of words, and use the words in their own sentences. The author explains that the purpose of this material hinges in helping students learn both general and technical vocabulary that they encounter in their readings. They encourage students to interact with new words. This results in greater retention of the words' meanings, as well as an enhanced ability to use words correctly in writing.

The writer orientates teachers and learners how to do it and recommends to write the word and the sentence from the text that introduces the word on the same side



of an index card. Students do this as they read. When they encounter a word for which they will make a concept card, they stop, write down the word and sentence on an index card, and then continue reading. She adds that once the teacher has identified words for students, the words should be given to students in the order in which they will appear in the text. Simon goes further and explains the coming up steps of the procedure. Thus, she suggests how to complete the concept cards, once students have finished reading, they should add the following information to the front of the concept card where they have written the word and sentence from the text. This goes on the same side of the index card as the word and sentence from the text. The super-ordinate idea chosen for a particular word should help the student classify or identify the word.

The next step is the definition where students first write their own definitions, based on their understanding of the word in context. They then check their definition by looking in a dictionary. If they feel that a change needs to be made to their definition based on the dictionary definition, they should make that change. Finally, if appropriate, students write down a short list of characteristics for the words; for example, synonyms and antonyms of a word, adjectives that describe a word, ideas associated with a word, etc.

Simon clarifies this procedure through the example below, in which students should identify the word by means of the context.



Definition	Word
1. A place where you find streets, parks, buildings, houses, bridges, schools, hospitals, museums, and so forth.	<u>City</u>
2. An area near the river and between mountains, generally with a warm climate	_____
3. A mountain with a large hole at the top, through which very hot liquid rock is sometimes forced out	—
4. An area of sand and small stones at the edge of the sea or a lake	_____
5. A thick tropical forest with many large plants growing very close together, and causes it to have a humid climate	_____

Simon continues with his list of suggestive material with the presentation of graphic organizers to teach vocabulary. He argues that if students are reading a piece of fiction and are expected to focus on character analysis, for example, a graphic organizer that clearly depicts the relationships among characters might be beneficial to them. To achieve the commitment suggested by Simon, the following material can be used in the language classroom:

- time lines
- diagrams

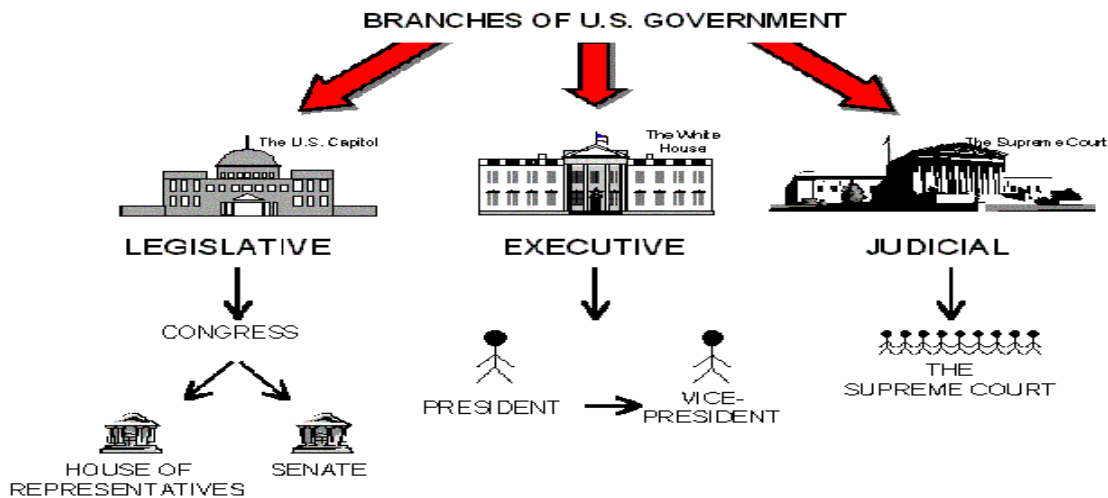


- cartoons
- pictures
- flow charts
- pyramid designs
- outlines
- feature analysis charts

Simon closes the presentation of his example with the following recommendation:

“Don’t assume that students will immediately understand the graphic organizer. Provide students with an explanation of the ideas in the graphic organizer and how they are related to one another. Explain to students how the graphic organizer can be used to support their efforts to comprehend the text they will be reading.”

In a third example, Simon introduces a graphic that might be used with a text introduces students to the branches of government.



Additionally, Simon sets an example of a word map that a student or student group might

create when preparing to read a text in which “Freedom in America” is a key concept.

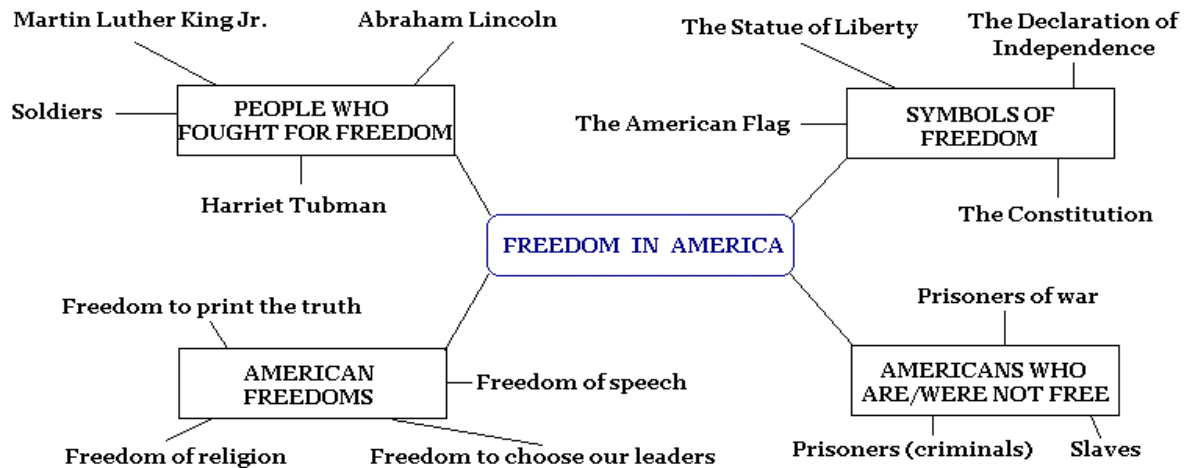
“Freedom in America” is at the centre of the map to indicate that it is the concept about

which associations were made. The words and phrases that are not in the boxes are the

brainstormed associations, and the words in the boxes are the categories that the student or

student group might identify to organize the associations.

FREEDOM IN AMERICA



2.4.4. THE ROLE AND THE SCOPE OF DICTIONARIES IN VOCABULARY TEACHING

In the traditional language teaching approaches the use of dictionaries either monolingual or bilingual, was regarded as anti-pedagogical because it was the language teacher who had to explain everything and learners were just limited to grasp what has being taught. This system stood for a passive methodology subject to the teacher's knowledge and the texts content, which did not promote students' independence, creativity, interaction and motivation. But around the second half of the twentieth century, language teachers realized that the use of dictionaries in the language classroom was essential because it provided both teacher and students with certain independence. Thus, students can look up words at the right moment; besides, they can go further what has been taught, resulting in creativity, whereas the teacher does not have to be tied to word translation, but he/ she has some



available time for monitoring the activity. On the other hand, teacher and students alike have to be conscious that monolingual and bilingual dictionaries do not meet with the same purpose, because the bilingual dictionary provides the single rendering of a word or phrase in order to find a momentary solution to the assigned task, but it does not grant the semantic learning because usually the learners' intention is centred in finding the meaning but not in learning it. Contrarily, the monolingual dictionary demands effort, concentration and certain level of knowledge provided that learners have to understand the meaning in the target language; that is, for example, English into English, which helps to recall words after a certain time. On the other hand, a monolingual dictionary pushes learners not to memorize the words but rather to infer or associate its meaning, which, in turn, lead to use them in different situational contexts.

William McCarthy quotes Della Summers⁵⁵ whose linguistic approach is centred in the use of dictionaries in the language classroom. Summers asserts that dictionary use is a valid activity for learners of a foreign language, both as an aid to comprehension and production. Clearly, Della Summers does not claim that the dictionary is the only, the best or the easiest source of the linguistic knowledge need to understand, write, or speak a foreign language accurately. This aim is achieved by making guesses about new

54. McCarthy, William 1985 quotes Summers, Della. The Role of Dictionaries in the Language Classroom, pages 289 and 290. They remark on the semantic role of dictionaries in the language classroom. London, 1982.

words encountered in the texts, asking the teachers for explanation, or asking help from their classmates. From this point of view, students can and should be



encouraged to avail themselves of the substantial information contained in their dictionaries. This kind of lexical instrument has been largely ignored by the psychologists and language teachers. The modern approaches trend suggests that words should not be thought of individually but in context, which orientates students and helps to infer their meanings.

There is a strong insistence that words should not be thought of individually or in isolation, and dictionaries are seen as classroom tools for reinforcing the learners' tendency to learn individual words when acquiring a second language. McCarthy argues that vocabulary teaching based in the findings of discourse analysis and the use of naturally occurring language. McCarthy adds that habits of viewing words as isolated semantic problems to be solve by definition is one best discouraged from the start of the beginner's course. This opinion reinforces the prevailing view that newly encountered words should only be decoded by means of contextual clues. Although, this is a widely agreed pedagogical principle, it cannot always be reconciled with what is possible for the native speaker. Let along the actual practice of the foreign language learner. In reality, the author affirms, unknown words within texts – whether in the form of a repetition, an encapsulation, a super-ordinate or sub-ordinate term – is very often not deducible from contextual clues. McCarthy adds that language researchers would like to believe that teaching words in some systematic way would be helpful – whether in semantic sets, by collocation or semantic feature matrices, even by linking them via their etymology, morphology or phonology, but naturally occurring language is not easily systematized. In the author's criterion, trying to deduce the meaning of an unknown word from the text



is a valuable strategy in understanding a foreign language. From this perspective, a dictionary provides a repeated exposure that a word can enter a person's active vocabulary, whether in first or subsequent language acquisition. McCarthy goes further when he states that dictionaries are useful even for native speakers, because no human being can know totally his or her language, which makes imperative the use of a monolingual dictionary. He adds that vocabulary acquisition by children in a native-speaker situation is similar to vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language classroom, but not the same, on the account of that the native-speaking child is exposed to words in a variety of different contexts, and so, forms a well-rounded concept of the words meaning and use.

Going on with the focus on dictionaries utility in the language classroom, Alexandrov M.A and P.P. Makagonov⁵⁵ tackle on the compilation of domain oriented dictionaries, on affirming that the use and translation of words as special terms often are not reflected neither by the general language lexicons nor by the existing specialized dictionaries even if they are available for a given subject domain. In many cases the only available information on the domain is a rather small set of texts. The paper concerns the computer-aided compilation of domain-oriented dictionaries. For a given domain area, by a domain-oriented dictionary we mean a list of representative special words or expressions in the form of so-called normalized codes, or stems; the latter concerns morphological normalization that is especially important for languages with sophisticated morphology, such as French, Spanish, or Russian. Such dictionaries are

55. M.A. Alexandrov and P.P. Makagonov. The Lexical Guidance of Dictionaries, pages 176 to 181. They ponder on the wording role of dictionaries in the language teaching process. Oasis Publishing, New York , 1989.

also useful for automatic text processing since they allow for search of information on the given domain in a large text archive as well as for detecting information



patterns and hidden regularities in the specialized text. The compilation of a high-quality dictionary is a multistage procedure consisting of three mayor stages: (1) selection and evaluation of the texts to train the dictionary, (2) statistical analysis, detection of the normalized codes, and compilation of the frequency lists, and (3) analysis and correction of the results by the human experts. Algorithms of detection of the normalized codes, the quantitative parameters for selection of the most informative part of the frequency list, and so-called coefficients of importance for keywords are discussed.

McCarthy retakes this issue and concludes that despite the evident utility of dictionaries, especially monolingual ones, there is still controversy with respect to its use because some researchers claim that context is the best via to uncover the meaning of words on the account of learners are assisted by the surrounding words which lead them to get the meaning of words either by inferring or associating the new words with the known ones, while others state that the dictionary is an imperative language tool within the learning process. Anyhow, it is evident that both theses have proved to be efficient, naturally, depending of various aspects and under the premise that there is no rule without exceptions.



CHAPTER THREE

VOCABULARY ACTIVITIES

3.1. VOCABULARY AND READING

3.1.1. PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS

Bonnie B. Ambruster ⁵⁶ affirms that the appropriate way to improve children's vocabulary level by teaching them to read is through Phonemic awareness. In this respect, he defines Phonemic Awareness as “the ability to notice, think and work with the individual sounds in spoken words.” The author claims that before children learn to read print, they need to become aware of how the sounds in words work; likewise, they must understand that words are made up of speech sounds and phonemes. Further on, he conceptualizes the elements of phonemic awareness by defining phoneme as “the smallest part of sound in a spoken word that makes the difference in the word's meaning.”

Ambruster sets a pathetic example, in which he changes the first phoneme in the word **hat** from /h/ to /p/; this causes the word to change from **hat** to **pat**, which in turn causes a change in meaning. The writer explains that the letter between slash marks shows the phoneme or sound represented by the letter, not the name of the letter. In this case, the letter **h** represents the sound /h/. He argues that in the light of these changes, children can show us that they have phonemic awareness in several ways:

-They can recognize which words in a set of words begin with the same sound, as in Bell,



56. Ambruster, Bonnie B. University of Illinois. Phonemic Awareness and Phonics, pages, 11 to 13. In his concept, Phonemic Awareness is the door for easy reading comprehension and effective spelling. United States, 2003.

Bike, Belly, Boy, where they find /b/ at the beginning

- They can isolate and say the first or last sound in a word; in these examples, “the beginning sound of **dog** is /d/,” “The ending sound of **sit** is /t/.”
- They can combine or blend the separate sounds in a word, as in **map**: “/m/, /a/, /p/”
- They can break, or segmentalize a word into its separate sounds, as in **up**: “/u/, /p/”

In this virtue, children who have phonemic awareness skills are likely to have an easier time learning to read and spell than children who have few or none of these skills. Phonemic awareness explains how the sounds of spoken language work together to make words. Whereas phonics shows a predictable relationship between phones and graphemes, that means that letters stand for those sounds in **written** language. The second difference hinges in the mutual fact that children are to benefit from phonics instruction, if they understand phonemic awareness.

The author frames his obvious reason under the premise that children who cannot hear or work with the phonemes of **spoken** words will have difficulty in learning how to relate these phonemes when they see them in **written** words.

A third misunderstanding about phonemic awareness is that it means the same as phonological awareness. Naturally, the two names are not interchangeable, but



phonemic awareness is a sub-category of phonological awareness, which means that the focus of phonemic awareness is narrow; that is, it tries to identify and manipulate the individual sounds in words. The focus of phonological awareness is much broader, for it tackles with identifying and manipulating larger parts of spoken language, such as words, syllables, onsets and rhymes, and phonemes, as well as other aspects of sound; namely, rhyming, alliteration, and intonation.

The author suggests some ways to determine if children have phonological awareness, among which we can mention:

- Identifying and making oral rhymes:

“The pig has a wig”

“Pat the cat”

“The moon rises soon”

- Identifying and working with syllables in spoken words:

“I can clap the parts in my name – An – drew”

- Identifying and working with onsets and rhymes in spoken syllables or one-syllable words:

“The first part of sip is s”

“The last part of win is in”

- Identifying and working with individual phonemes in spoken words:



“The first sound of sun is /s/”

The examples suggest the practice of oral rhyming, so that students familiarize with the final sounds of words. For instance:

Children usually walk on bare **foot**,
and they feel relaxed and really **hoot**.

The two types of phonological awareness show the way how students can distinguish between rimes and onsets. For example, F – ish, or gr – oup. The consonantal part of the word stands for the rime, whereas the vocalic one represents the onset.

Broader Phonological awareness:

- Identifying and making oral rhymes
- Identifying and working with syllables in spoken words

Narrower Phonological awareness:

- Identifying and working with onsets and rhymes in spoken syllables
- Identifying and working with individual phonemes in spoken words

3.1.2. PHONICS

As explained above, phonics instruction is the inseparable part of phonemic awareness. Phonics teaches children the relationship between the graphemes of



spoken language. It teaches children to use these relationships to read and write words. The process of teaching phonics includes:

- Grapho-phonemic relationships
- Letter-sound associations
- Letter-sound correspondences
- Sound-symbol correspondences

In Ambruster's words, the goal of phonics instruction is to help children learn and use the alphabetic principle – the understanding that there are systematic and predictable relationships between written letters and spoken sounds. Knowing these relationships will help children recognize familiar words accurately and automatically in order to decode new words. In brief, the understanding of the alphabetical principle contributes greatly to children's ability to read words both in isolation and in connected context.

As every principle or theory, phonics instruction has been criticized in the sense that English spellings are too irregular for phonics instructions to really help children learn to read words, but the counterpoint states that phonics instruction teaches children a system for remembering how to read words. For instance, once children learn that **phone** is spelled this way, rather than **foan**, their memory helps them to read, spell, and recognize the word instantly and more accurately than they could read **foan**. This process may also be applied to all irregularly spelled words. The advantage lies in that most of these words contain regular letter-sound



relationships that can help children remember how to read them with the help of the alphabetic system, which is a mnemonic device that supports our memory for specific words.

The author has devised a solution for special cases by splitting up phonics instruction in **systematic** and **explicit**, which prevent children from the risk of developing future reading problems. Surveys carried out in this issue have proved that systematic phonics instruction is significantly more effective than non-systematic or no phonics instruction in helping to prevent reading difficulties among at-risk students and in helping children overcome reading difficulties.

Various studies reveal that phonics instruction is most effective when it begins in kinder garden or in first grade. The author asserts that the effectiveness of systematic instruction with young learners lies in that it must be designed appropriately and taught carefully. Obviously, to get the expected results, it should include teaching letters shapes and names, phonemic awareness and all major letter-sound relationships.

As previously stated, the key aim of the process of phonics instruction is to solidify young children's knowledge of the alphabet by engaging them in phonemic awareness activities, and listening to stories and informational texts to then read aloud to them; later they should be reading texts and writing letters, words, messages, and stories.

A scientifically-based research has come to the conclusion that phonics instruction is of particular interest to classroom teachers because the hallmark of programs of



systematic phonic instruction is the direct teaching of a set of letter-sound relationships in a clearly defined sequence, which includes the major sound-spelling relationships of both consonants and vowels.

A program of systematic phonics instruction clearly identifies a carefully selected and useful set of letter-sound relationships and then organizes the introduction of these relationships into a logical instructional sequence. This may include the relationship between the sounds associated with the single letters as well as with larger units of written language.

3.1.3. FUN GUESSING

Prior to tackle on the topic itself, it is worth-while to conceptualize the term *guessing*. The Random House Webster College Dictionary ⁵⁷ provides the following definition: “To risk an opinion regarding something we do not know about, either wholly, or partly by chance to arrive at a correct answer to a question.” On the base of this definition, we have come to the conclusion that the synonyms of the verb *guess* might be think, believe, suppose, make an estimate or conjecture.

Gonzalez Bernal⁵⁸, asserts that guessing is as old as man, and it has been there since primitive human beings started to socialize, which means that guessing is one of the most primitive funny forms of language that there appeared together with the social nature of human beings. Guessing is a language resource found in every language, from the world-wide known languages to the group or tribal ones. Clearly, it is not only one more language resource geared to entertain and make



people laugh, but it has been the pioneering matter that put man to think and uncover mysteries of life and nature.

From this point of view, he sees guessing as a multi-functional element in language teaching due to its richness in language registers, because whether informal, literary colloquial, vulgar or slang and jargon, it presents a diversity of language structures and a high rate of passive vocabulary accompanied by some active words. On the other hand, it can be applied to all ages and may be set at every moment of the class time. It is so

57. The Random House Webster College Dictionary, page 356. The dictionary provides some definitions about guessing, 2006.

58. Bernal, Gonzalez. Congress of English Teachers Using the Oldies of Language in the Classroom, -lecture - Chimborazo. He considers oldies as an opportunity to focus on culture and motivate students at a time , 2006.

effective provided that it unconsciously leads to an extreme mental effort, and, therefore, it offers the opportunity to show the true colors of individuals' background.

Thus, guessing is an effective language classroom-resource that may be used as an ice breaker or wind-up for it greatly contributes to the teaching learning language process in several respects.

The variety of focus found in guessing makes of it a meta-cognitive component of language, which demands from guessers a significant knowledge and certain mind



exercise to solve the problem, by using “guesstimate” that gears learners to combine guessing with reasoning, as shown in the example below.

Guessing:

Read the guessing and infer the answer; otherwise find the answer in the box below and then write the responses in the spaces provided.

- *“I am in the sky and I am not a star, I’ve got a yellowish colour and I am very beautiful, especially when I there appear full-sized. Guess! Guess!”*

- *“My father’s poncho cannot be folded and my mother’s coins cannot be counted.” Guess! Guess!*

- *“It brightens like gold, it lives in the space; it gives us light and heat. Guess! Guess!”*

- *“On a tree there are twelve branches, on each branch there are four nests and each nest has seven eggs. Guess! Guess!”*

_____, _____

- *“I am very colourful, I there appear in the afternoon only, as a premonition of rain. Guess! Guess!”*



- “Guess! Guess! It enters into water and doesn’t get wet. It enters in the fire and doesn’t get burned.” _____
- “I fly without wings, I whistle without mouth, I hit without hands and you do not see nor touch me. Guess! Guess!” _____

THE MOON – THE WIND – THE STARS – THE RAINBOW – THE SUN – THE
SHADE –
YEAR , MONTH, WEEK AND DAYS

3.2. VOCABULARY AND PRONUNCIATION

3.2.1. The Sweetness of Language Sounds

Lyn Graham ⁵⁹ affirms that language researchers linguists, and other people involved in

59. Graham, Lyn, The Taste of Language Sounds, pages 115 and 116. She asserts that language sounds are vital to classify and identify them , Cambridge, England, 2007.

this area highlight the importance of symbols by arguing that they are the essence of

language, without realizing that these symbols are only dummy words without sounds. She claims that language without sounds would meet with a single



morphological role that meets the letter “H” in romance languages or some writing symbols used in Asian languages to indicate the referent of the meaning.

That’s why she regards sounds as the voice of languages, which actually permits human beings to communicate. Indeed! It is the sounds that permit to identify language families and classify them into groups; for instance, Germanic, Romance, Bantu, Indic, Slavic, Celtic – Sino-Tibetan, and others are important language groups in the world. Graham points out that language without sounds would just transmit a few concrete meanings. In this sense, she compares a hypothetical soundless language with dumb human beings who can communicate a limited number of messages due to their lack of speech; from this point of view, the sound system is for language what language is for human beings.

Sue Dixon⁶⁰ claims that language is not easily recognizable by its syntactic, morphological, or semantic systems, but by its sound system because each language possesses characteristic sounds that permit listeners to immediately mind up the phonetic feature of a given language and identify it. Furthermore, Dixon claims that it is the sound system that establishes the syllabication of languages, which means that some languages as Chinese, Thai, Vietnamese, and Mandarin Chinese are characterized by the shortness of the words, contrarily to Germanic or Slavic languages, which morphological nature results in the lengthiness of their words; she goes further on when she asserts that the morphological



60. Dixon, Sue, The Driving Wheel of Language, pages 30 to 33. She considers that sounds stand for languages identity, because it is like an individual trait or voice tone, 2004.

structure of words is really enigmatic, because each language possesses a well-defined rate of consonants and vowels, within which some letters are predominant in the word corpus of a language; similarly, the spelling system determines the rule related to the letter-position system, which allows letters to be placed in initial, middle, or final position.

This means that some letters can go in initial or middle position, but not at the end of a word; similarly, she adds that some phonemes can form cluster sounds when joined to others, but not all phonemes can make clusters with the same combinations. She concludes that all languages have weak and strong sounds, but the rate of weakness or strength of sounds differ from language to language. For instance, Germanic and Slavic are known as hard or rude because most of their sounds are strong and, specifically speaking, Germanic is guttural while Slavic is fricative; on the other hand, in English the predominant sounds are week, resembling Mandarin Chinese or Thai, whose sound system is mostly weak and musical, reason being they are called **tonal**.

3.2.2. Rebus and Riddles

The Random House Webster's College Dictionary 2002⁶¹ defines these two terms as follows: “Rebus is a representation of a word or phrase by pictures or symbols. In other words, it is the way to express a message not by words but by things.” The definition itself suggests that the function of rebus is to facilitate the understanding



of short chunks of language through the combination of function words and key words, which are represented by objects. No doubt this fact proves the distinction between the complexity of semantic

61. The Random House Webster’s College Dictionary, page 1124. It defines Rebus semantically and lexically, 2002.

symbols represented by words and the simplicity and universality of graphic language expressed through pictures.

Rebus has generally been used as a useful vocabulary teaching technique which replaces words with graphics. It has mainly been used in language schools of English speaking countries. Though it is not a new technique, in Ecuador it has just been used once in a blue moon, which means that the majority of Ecuadorian English teachers know nothing about rebus. When they find the term in some texts or just hear it, they wonder, “What does rebus mean?” “What is it for?,” “How does it work?,” and “How much does it contribute to vocabulary teaching?”

Researches on language teaching have proved that rebus is not only a vocabulary teaching technique but also a way to create fun in the language classroom because students enjoy combining words and pictures, at the time that they enhance their vocabulary level. On the other hand, rebus replaces the use of dictionaries in the language classroom, given the fact that graphics enter the learners’ mind as a result of their process of world knowledge, which proves that



even children who can not read are able to understand picture-language that just demands intuition and reasoning.

Riddle, which is also called *conundrum*, has been conceptualized by the Webster's Dictionary as “a question framed so as to exercise one's ingenuity in answering it or discovering its meaning.”

Yoda Schmidt⁶², in An ESL/EFL article asserts that this is a simple open-ended puzzle.

62. Schmidt, Yoda. In An ESL/EFL article Using Riddles to Teach the Language of Logic and Precision, pages 476 and 477, the author illustrates and proves the magic of riddles in vocabulary teaching , 2006.

There are many possible solutions including the 'canonical' solution, which are somewhat fraught with uncertainty. This is a small group free talking activity.

The teacher can introduce the riddle in any number of ways. He usually has one or two students who read the riddle quietly and then explains it to the other students. When he is satisfied, the students have communicated the riddle and the rest of students have understood it; then he asks them to come up with solutions.

The canonical solution is to turn one switch on and then wait; turn that switch off, turn a second switch on, and go into the other room. The light *that is on* is the second switch. The light *that is off but warm* is the first switch. The light *that is off and cold* is the third switch. Note the repetitive use of relative clauses in italics as a way of being precise. Also, 'first', 'second' and 'third' are used to keep track of the switches.

But this is not the only solution, and it's not even perfect: What if the light bulbs are so high up that you can't touch them? What if the light bulbs are of the non-generating-heat kind? What if the room is far-away so that the light bulb cools down in the mean-time?.

At this point, the students debate the merits of the various solutions that they have come up with. In such a case, the professor tends to be hands off and lets them run the show, only interrupting to clarify a point of English or two.

Finally, the author frames a fair solution and tells them it's not perfect. In turns, each student will retell the solution to the riddle. The teacher should interrupt them and make them do it over again until they get it perfect, using all of the relative clauses correctly. Since he or she only uses these riddles with small groups, it is possible to give this much individual attention. It is highly motivating and the students are happy to be able to produce such lengthy amounts of English at once.

Examples of rebus



like to





at the

and watch the traditional



in many sea shore towns. It is really nice to observe



how they wait for their turn in

while the



passengers eat some



soup or drink hot

3.3. VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR

3.3.1. Hispanisms and False Cognates or False Friends

The Complete Oxford Dictionary ⁶³, defines Hispanism “as a word, phrase or semantic feature, which has been borrowed from Spanish by other languages.” For example, *yucca*, *poncho*, *mango*, *piñata*, *enchilada*, *enclave*, *tortilla*, *taco*, *tornado*, etc are Spanish words. These words have been incorporated into the English language and, naturally, they are not pronounced the same way as in Spanish because they have been adapted to the English

63. The Complete Oxford Dictionary, page 1035. The dictionary provides a practical definition of the word “Hispanism,” 2004.



pronunciation, but their meaning, their origin remain the same. The exception may be seen in the words *yucca* and *tortilla*. All these words are originated in the Latin American Spanish and presumably the Lexicographers of the English Language have regarded them as irreplaceable and, instead of translating them, they have decided to keep their original form or implement very little changes.

Hispanisms are quite keen to cognates, because they contribute greatly to the vocabulary learning process due to the fact that students have to do little effort to pronounce them according to the phonological features of the English language. But the meaning of the words is well-known to them and they can even describe these words by their own. Hispanisms are also really useful, for they help infer the meaning in context.

Jill Bolton⁶⁴, defines cognates in the following way: “Two words that have a common origin, similar spelling and the same meaning.” For example, the English “kiosk” and the Spanish *quiosco* are cognates because they both come from the Turkish *kosk* and mean the same. Naturally, this fact causes these words to have a similar meaning, but in some cases the meaning has changed over the centuries in one language or another. An example of such a change is the English word “arena,” which usually refers to a sports facility, and the Spanish *arena*, which usually means “sand.” They both come from the Latin *harena*, which originally meant “sand.”



Bolton goes to the point when she states that the term "cognate" specifically refers to that parallelism in lexicon also called *true friends*; she asserts that where there is something

64. Bolton, Jill, Cognates in Language Teaching, page 94. The author remarks on resembling languages Vocabulary Teaching, 2003.

true, it is logical that there must be the counterpart false. That's why cognates are commonly known as true and false friends; true friends are semantically trustful words, converging in the two languages in origin and meaning, as displayed in the list below:

English	Spanish
family	familia
center	centro
radio	radio
class	clase
desert	desierto
magic	magia
gorilla	gorilla
nation	nación
agent	agente

False friends are meaning-deceiving or tricky words, which seem to have the same meaning in two languages, which actually have no common origin, such as the



Spanish *sopa*, meaning “soup,” and the English “soap.” She goes further and states that it is not possible to pair similar words as a rule, because some of them have a different meaning in each language, and therefore, they are called “false cognates.” The two terms have been quoted from John Ayton⁶⁵.

65. Ayton, John. The Dictionary of Word Origin, page 436. The author illustrates the roots of typical cognates, 2001.

SOUP	SOAP
<p>“Soup” was borrowed from the French word “soupe.” This is keen to its English relative “sop;” originally it denoted a “piece of bread soaked in liquid.” One way of making such “sops” was to put them in the bottom of a bowl and pour broth over them, and eventually, “soupe” came to denote the “broth” itself – the sense in which English acquired it. The word “soupe” descended from late Latin “suppa,” a derivative of the verb “suppare,” meaning soak, which, in turn, was formed from the borrowed Germanic “sup” that has given origin to the English words “sop” and “sup” meaning “drink.”</p>	<p>The word “soap” is of West Germanic origin; it comes from the pre-historic term “saipo,” which originated from German “seife” and Dutch “zeep.” Surely, this word may have been related to the Old English term “sipian,” meaning “drip,” suggesting that it historically referred to a stage in the manufacture of “soap.” This word does not come from Greek or Latin because the Romans, like the Greeks, used oil instead of soap for cleansing their skin, so they did not have their own native word for it. Later on they borrowed the Germanic word “sapo,” which has evolved into French “savon” and Italian “sapone.”</p>



The worksheet of Spanish False Cognates below displays some examples of false cognates in context.

1. Espero tener (success) en mi examen.
2. Mi hermana está . (pregnant)
3. Quiero (record) un disco de música.
4. ¿Dónde está la (exit)?
5. Cuidado - ella es super . (sensitive)
6. Voy a visitar a algunos (relatives) en Texas.
7. Debemos (assist) a la gente pobre.
8. La (carpet) está sucia.
9. ¿Quieres (attend) el concierto?
10. Es un hombre muy . (large)

Ell Derby⁶⁶ focuses on the importance of cognates in developing comprehension in English. Not surprisingly, argues Derby, researchers who study first and second language acquisition have found that students benefit from cognate awareness. Cognate awareness is the ability to use cognates in a primary language as a tool for understanding a second language. Children can be taught to use cognates as early as preschool.



As students move up the grade levels, they can be introduced to more sophisticated cognates and to cognates that have multiple meanings in both languages, although some of those meanings may not overlap. One example of a cognate with multiple meanings is *asistir*, which means to *assist* (same meaning) but also to *attend* (different meaning).

Derby's concern is focused on the English words ancestors, that is why he tackles on the two main sources of English words, the Germanic, by one side, and the Greek and Latin

source, which is also the basic source of Spanish words as a counterpart. To balance his explanation, Derby presents a chart of English and Spanish terms along with their Greek and Latin roots:

66. Derby, Ell. University of Michigan, Spanish and English Cognates, pages 290 to 292. In the author's terms cognates are a useful resource that leads students to intuition, 2007.

Root	Meaning	Origin	English examples	Spanish examples
aud	hear	Latin	auditorium audition	auditorio audición
astir	star	Greek	astrology astronaut	astrología astronauta
bio	life	Greek	biography biology	biografía biología



dict	speak, tell	Latin	dictate dictator	dictar dictador
mit, mis	send	Latin	mission transmit	misión transmitir
ped	foot	Latin	pedal pedestal	pedal pedestal
phon	sound	Greek	phoneme microphone	fonema micrófono
port	carry	Latin	transport portable	transportar portátil

3.3.2. Vocabulary and Grammar Interviewing

Irene Schoenberg and Jay Maurer⁶⁷ claim that grammar and vocabulary need each other

67. Schoenberg, Irene E. & Maurer, Jay. The Marriage of Grammar and Vocabulary, page 41. The writer explains the reciprocity between language and vocabulary. Longman, 2002.

because grammar can not stand without vocabulary, due to the fact that grammar structures are made up of words, and words belong to vocabulary corpus, though, she adds, vocabulary do stand in an isolated form, in which it produces little or any meaning. In other words, vocabulary provides grammar with raw material, words, whereas grammar contributes to vocabulary by giving meaning to phrases, sentences, clauses, and pieces of writing through cohesion and coherence.



George Yule⁶⁸ goes beyond the de-contextualized grammar in the light most of the grammar books provide and describes how the peculiarities and idiosyncrasies of nine difficult areas of English grammar can be explained to students.

These areas include articles, tense and aspect, modals, conditionals, prepositions and particles, indirect objects, infinitives and gerunds, relative clauses, and direct and indirect speech. From this premise, Yule asserts that focusing on the relationship grammar – vocabulary is like comparing the link between language and culture, or nature and man; in this virtue, he argues, vocabulary is the essential tool that permits grammar make up words in order to communicate messages in a logical way; she adds that a language without grammar would be a linguistic chaos unable to transmit messages; this means that focus on Grammar provides context, practice, and interaction to teach learners in a communicative way.

Rob Badstone⁶⁹ states that language takes form thanks to grammar by providing teachers and learners alike with the opportunity to practice language from a clear and straight

68. Youle, George. Article The Value of Grammar, page 3. In his words, Grammar means language order, 1998.

69. Batstone, Rob. Grammar as the Language Frame, pages 185 and 186. He thinks that grammar is contextually vital, 1994.

forward point of view; he points out that although the teaching of grammar has been severely questioned and reduced, this doesn't mean that grammar is no



longer important within the language teaching-learning process. Contrarily, the relevance of grammar in the teaching of vocabulary and even language skills has recovered its value through the new focus on contextual situations, which have a communicative aim. In so doing, language teachers create interaction, good atmosphere, and fun, at the time that it turns learning into a productive and efficient strategy. Batstone goes farther when he claims that the importance of grammar in line to vocabulary hinges in that language value consists of two basic elements: accuracy and fluency. He thinks that the previous phase to acquire fluency is accuracy because it is the correct weaving of words that gives effectiveness to communication, and therefore, value to language.

3.3.3. Vocabulary Graduation and Gradation

Joan Swan⁷⁰ manifests that in a general sense, graduation and gradation are interchangeable for they imply the arrangement of elements according to a hierarchical rank or the level of difficulty of a given subject. In her words, graduation is mainly used in course books or syllabuses to organize the contents in a systematic and helpful way. Graduation may go deeper when it affects the order in which words, word meanings, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skills, strategies, etc are presented. The graduation procedure may be based on different criteria, such as the complexity of an item, its frequency on written or spoken

70. Swan, Joan. Dictionary of Socio-Linguistics, page 116. She defines gradation from the socio-linguistic point of view. England, 2004.



language, or its importance for the learners. From this point of view, it might be conceptualized as an election or personal choice.

She argues that graduation may also be applied to syntax, semantics, morphology and phonology. Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy⁷¹ present a sample in which they apply graduation for vocabulary teaching through a list of the first one hundred function words for basic level for lexical selection.



71. Carter, Ronald and McCarthy, Michael. Vocabulary and Language Teaching. Pages 223 to 225. They provide samples for gradation, 1990.



1 – 17	18 – 33	34 – 52	53- 70	71 – 86	87 – 100
the	as	there	Do	time	any
of	be	her	my	could	much
and	but	which	more	people	many
to	they	an	who	other	these
a	at	so	me	only	way
in	his	what	like	its	how
that	have	there	very	will	down
I	not	if	come	may	why
it	this	would	him	done	even
was	or	about	some	yes. just	first
is	by	said	into	because	again
he	we	up	then	over	did
for	she	when	now	don't	back
you	from	been	think	get	old
on	one	out	well	under	new

The Random House Webster's College Dictionary⁷² defines gradation as “The process or change in language through a series or stages, by degrees.”

72 The Random House Webster's College Dictionary, page 986. It provides a general definition of gradation, 2002



Linguistically speaking, gradation deals with morphological changes, which may be caused by consonantal, or vocalic omission, or internal variations, either consonantal or vocalic, such is the case of irregular verbs to determine the tenses.

Joan Swan⁷³ quotes Joshua Fishman language shift. This term refers to gradation as an element dealing with language change. Socio-linguists have studied and realized that home and region are the last bastions of survival for beleaguered languages; gender relations may also play a role that determines structural changes. In Swan's concept, one of the fundamental facts about living languages is that they are always changing; while new words, new pronunciations, new grammatical forms and structures, and new meanings for existing forms are always coming into existence, others are constantly dropping out of use. This fact makes absolutely impossible for a living language avoid changing. The motivations for change are many and only some of them are reasonably well understood; as the world develops day by day, new objects, new concepts, and new activities all require new names. At the same time, old objects, old concepts, and old activities may cease to exist and their names may die with them. In this process, some linguistic forms may acquire social prestige and spread to the speech of those who formerly did not use them. On the other hand, she argues that the physiological characteristics of the mouth may change to favor certain changes in pronunciation, but such changes may disrupt formerly regular grammatical patterns, introducing irregularities which may later be removed in one way or another.



73. Swan, Joan. Dictionary of Socio-Linguistics, quotes Joshua Fishman's, who focuses on the nature of semantic changes, 1964.

Gonzalez Bernal⁷⁴ states that gradation is the key element to help learners understand the abstract system of English irregular verbs by establishing the tenses in the light of a vowel or a consonant change. For example, in one of the verbal groups, “i” stands for present tense; “a” represents past tense; and “u” indicates the past participle, whereas in another group, “d” stands for present tense and its counterpart “t” represents the past tense and the past participle, as displayed in the examples below.

GROUP TWO : A

PRESENT SIMPLE	PAST SIMPLE	PRESENT PERFECT
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• bend	t	has + t
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• lend	t	has + t
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• rend	t	has + t
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• send	t	has + t
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• spend	t	has + t
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• build	t	has + t



74 Bernal Gonzales in his lecture Gradation of Irregular Verbs, page 4. He tries to make the learning of Irregular verbs easy, 2004

GROUP TWO : B

PRESENT SIMPLE	PAST SIMPLE	PRESENT PERFECT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • deal • dream • lean • mean • spoil • burn 	+ t + t + t + t + t + t	has + t has + t has + t has + t has + t has + t

GROUP TWO : C

PRESENT SIMPLE	PAST SIMPLE	PRESENT PERFECT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • creep • feel • keep • kneel • sleep 	(-) e + t (-) e + t (-) e + t (-) e + t (-) e + t	has (-) e + t has (-) e + t has (-) e + t has (-) e + t has (-) e + t



• sweep	(-) e + t	has (-) e + t
• spell	(-) l + t	has (-) l + t
• spill	(-) l + t	has (-) l + t
• dwell	(-) l + t	has (-) l + t
• smell		

GROUP THREE: A VOWEL CHANGE

PRESENT SIMPLE	PAST SIMPLE	PRESENT PERFECT
• begin	a	has + u
• drink	a	has + u
• ring	a	has + u
• sing	a	has + u
• sink	a	has + u
• spring	a	has + u
• shrink	a	has + u
• swim	a	has + u
• stink	a	has + u

3.4. VOCABULARY AND INTEGRATED SKILLS

3.4.1. Associating Technique



Jill Ben⁷⁵ states that the associating technique is one of the most effective and workable ways of teaching languages, that is why reason being, it is used worldwide. As time goes by, it has gained a lot of importance due to the constant expansion and evolution and its

75. Ben, Jill. Linking Strategies, pages 41 and 42. She highlights on the importance of lexical association. Southern Language. Quito, 2008.

scope has gone beyond the researchers' expectations, but the most relevant aspect of this technique is that it directly involves learners into the target language, discharging translation. In the author's words, it is the native language avoidance that has led association to be considered as a new concept in language teaching because it gears learners to deep thinking in order to carry out their classroom activities. Additionally, language teachers may apply this technique with different outlines, such as in groups, in pairs, or individually. The wide scope of this technique demands the use of a variety of strategies, which depend on the learners' level, cultural background, age, teaching purpose and the rate of motivation; before closing her approach, she mentions the most common associating strategies:

- words with meaning
- words with pictures
- words with paragraphs
- words with words
- words with sounds



- lexical sets
 - facts with people
 - nouns with adjectives
 - pictures with meaning
 - pictures with sounds
 - phrasal verbs
 - collocations
-
- surrounding context
 - pictures with sentences, and so on

In the author's concept, all these elements contribute to avoid the traditional isolated or contextual translation and lead learners to learn English into English or to associate the natural language of pictures with their native language knowledge, which conduct them to think in the target language and consciously or unconsciously enrich learners' lexicon. These techniques are devised to help learners in different ways, such as improving their language skills, syntactic structures, pronunciation, spelling and culture.

In this respect, the National Centre of Educational Outcomes of Minneapolis⁷⁶ describes in detail a list of strategies used in the association technique to teach vocabulary:



- Dramatization of stories: This technique uses physical movement to create interaction and motivation, which will result in the improvement of story comprehension.

This teaching tool works as an ice breaker against the fear of speaking a foreign

language and associates the story content with the learners' physical movement.

- Adjusted speech: is a technique in which the language professor changes speech patterns to increase students' comprehension, mainly through paraphrasing, by

76. The National Centre of Educational Outcomes of Minneapolis. <http://education.umn.edu/NCEO/> – USA, pages 9 and 10. The authors recommend strategies to teach vocabulary, 2004.

assisting them with key ideas. In so doing, the participants associate the topic with their experiences and ideas to enhance their vocabulary level.

- Collecting generated questions: This allows students to write questions at any phase of the lesson, which might be done on a piece of paper or card. Prior to answering the questions, the pieces of paper or card must be collected on the professor's desk. After that, volunteers read aloud the questions without identifying the person the questions refer to. This



technique associates facts with people's personality or physical characteristics, at the time that it leads the peers to intuit the person's name.

- Combination of kinesthetic and phonemic awareness: It associates different movements with phonemes in order to anchor sounds during practice, which allows build phonemic awareness and the facility to remember sounds. This technique uses body language, specifically articulation through the vocal cords.
- Cooperative Learning: It is a range of team-based learning approaches where students work together and help each other in order to complete the task. Herein, students associate weak and strong knowledge, at the time that they link skills, knowledge, and content.
- Constant review of the learned material: It is a process of always bringing in previously learned material to consolidate learners' base knowledge day by day, which results in a continuous reinforcement of the learned structures. The technique links previous or world knowledge with the new one, at the time that it refreshes previous knowledge.
- Decodable text: It uses readings that contain only words that students can decode and build on. It's common knowledge that decoding is the ability to translate words from print to speech, usually by employing knowledge of sound-symbol correspondences. In other words, it is the act of deciphering a new word by sounding it out. Herein, the authors associate written and oral language, which results in the link of sounds and symbols.



- Vocabulary teaching through segmented time: The technique implies the use of the four language skills in short blocks of time. This is a combination of vocabulary exposure and physical movement to create interaction, which helps hold learner's attention; in so doing, teacher and learners embed lexicon to language skills.
- Ecological approach: It involves all aspects of child's life, including classroom, family, neighborhood, and community. The technique permits students share both real life and educational experiences, which results in the association of language and socio linguistic settings.
- Explicit teaching of text structure: It deals with teaching the parts of different types of texts and making sure students understand the text structure before reading. This includes the identification of structures and the language register. The authors combine the nature of the text with the learners' ability to manage with readings techniques.
- Fluency building: It helps students build fluency in frequently occurring words through short assessment and exercises that give increased exposure to high-frequency words. The technique associates the fluency process with active vocabulary, naturally, relying on the assistance of accuracy.
- Journal of the senses: It has students write down in an informal way what they imagine the characters of the story would see, smell, hear, taste, and



feel at a certain point of the story. Clearly, herein, there is an association of the story's partial content with the participants' human senses.

3.4.2. Key-Wording

As key-wording or clue wording is a term that might cause confusion to learners and even to some language teachers, we regard it is worth defining it. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English⁷⁷ provides the following concept, “A piece of information that helps us solve a cross-word, answer a question, or decipher a sentence or paragraph content.” The Random House Webster's College Dictionary⁷⁸ defines it as “a word that serves as a clue towards the meaning of another word, sentence or passage,” or “as a word that affords a means to achieve, master, or understand something that is in suspense and needs to be clarified.”

In the light of this concept Trent Locker⁷⁹ focuses on the technique of key-wording, or

clue-wording, through which he states that teaching context clues is funny and learners may

77 The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, page 508. It gives a technical concept, 2003.

78 The Random House Webster's College Dictionary, page 745. It gives a general definition, 2002.

79Locker, Trent, article, Tell a Friend, page 2. The writer remarks on the effectiveness of key- wording, 2009.



benefit from vocabulary skills, acquisition of new words, preview reading selections and

attention-holding topics. Herein, the author devises and presents in detail an example of a

lesson plan to use key-wording in an effective, funny, and saving-time way, accompanied of the appropriate description, objectives, layout, procedures, and even options.

Description

In groups of four, students write down definitions, but there's a catch! They're not allowed to use dictionaries, glossaries, dictionary.com, or any other reference. They're only allowed to use each other and the literary work in which the word appears. They must use context clues. Each team compares definitions. The team with the highest point total at the end wins the game, the A+, and becomes the kings and queens of context clues.

Objectives

- Students will determine word meanings using context clues.
- Students will differentiate shades of word meanings.
- Students will evaluate word meanings in context.
- Students will communicate as a team.
- Students will defend their answers using reason and logic.
- Students will incorporate new vocabulary in correctly written sentences.
- Students will become lexically curious and motivated.



Procedures

- List 8-12 words on the board. Next to the word, in parentheses, write the page number, paragraph number, column number, or any other designation that will help students find the word in context. For example: mortgage (section 1, paragraph 2, Line 3).
- When class begins, instruct students to copy words from the board with parenthetical information.
- Assign students in groups of four. Make sure they move their desks together and are facing each other.
- Explain the following rules: Each group must determine the meaning of each word based on how it is used in context. The parenthetical information helps students locate the word. Students may not use any source other than the page numbers in parentheses and their teammates.
- As students eagerly define words, make a grid on the board: words listed on the side, team names listed across.
- Begin the contests when sufficient time has passed. This is the challenge part of the context clue challenge.
- Ask group 1 for their definition on word 1. Write it in the corresponding grid space.
- Ask group 2 if they agree or disagree with group 1's definition. If they agree, write 'A'. If they disagree, write 'D'. Continue until all groups have either agreed or disagreed.



- Go over the definition. If group 1's definition is correct, they get 2 points and everybody who agreed with them gets 1 point. If group 1's definition is incorrect, everybody who disagreed with them gets 1 point.
- Continue the game with group 2 going first, then group 3, then group 4, etc.

Options

- Have groups that disagree provide their own definition.
- Have students copy down the correct definition and create sentences using the word correctly.
- Base the grade on what place each group finished in.
- Have student write their answers on individual group posters to reduce noise.
- Adapt it to your classroom, strengths, and students as you see fit.
- Have fun!

Trent goes further on his key-wording survey and devises some strategies for unlocking word meaning by using context clues. Before setting the context clues, themselves, he frames the question. “Why aren't my students using them? And he responds himself by reminding us that we are asked by our students “What does this X mean,” or “What’s the English word for?” Usually, the inevitable response is “Look it up in the dictionary,” but language teachers don’t realize that this expression may be misinterpreted by learners as “I don’t know what the word means either, so I’ll save face by making an appeal to the dictionary. He thinks that a more appropriate response would be “Gee, let's use context.” First we have to



examine the different types of context clues. After that, we can apply it to what we are reading and figure out what the word means.” Thus, the solution not only would lie in sending a powerful message as a command, but in motivating them to go through the context clues, so they can get aware of the real importance of the context clues. This way learners will get into the habit of orientating through the surrounding words to infer or guess the clue of words in their further tasks, instead of just looking up an isolated or disconnected meaning in the dictionary.

Writers often place difficult words with other, more familiar words. Noting similarities between the words described unlocks word meaning. The following sentence uses my favorite word, *troglydyte*. Its association with like-words make its meaning easy to infer. The author sets a sample on how to infer the meaning of clue words.

- Whether you call him a caveman, *troglydyte*, Neanderthal, or barbarian, I don't care. Just don't call him on my phone. In this case, the key word task is supported by words signaling comparison including *like, resembling, also, identical, related, in the same way, as, likewise*.

This sample shows the effectiveness of the key-wording technique, accompanied by an effective vocabulary instruction that results in an increasing of learners' vocabulary and the improvement of their ability to communicate effectively.



3.4.3. Denotation and Connotation

According to Roland Barthes and Collin Smith⁸⁰ point out that language is symbolic in that we use it to represent ideas, objects, and feelings in more than one way. Sometimes the difference is simply *literal* versus *figurative*. *Denotation* and *connotation* make a quite effective and well-known technique that both language professors and learners can employ to discern the meaning of an unfamiliar term. For a writer to express himself precisely, he must understand both the denotations and connotations of words, and use that understanding to convey to the reader his exact intent.

80. Barthes, Roland. Elements of Semiotics, quoted by Lavers Annette and Smith, pages 55 and 56. The writer focuses on the semiotic approach. Colin-London, 2001, Wikipedia, 2005.

Barthes considers that *denotation* is the surface or literal meaning encoded to a signifier, and the definition most likely to appear in a dictionary. The term denotation was coined by Ferdinand de Saussure⁸¹ when he launched his theory in the sense that the sign has two parts:

- As a *signifier*, i.e., it will have a form that a person can see, touch, smell, and/or hear, and
- As the *signified*, i.e., it will represent an idea or mental construct of a thing rather than the thing itself.

In the light of his examples, Barthes argues that to transmit information, both the addresser and the addressee must use the same code. The denotative meaning of a signifier is intended to communicate the objective semantic content of the



represented thing. So, in the case of a lexical word, say "book", the intention is to do no more than describe the physical object. Any other meanings or implications will be connotative meanings.

In the author's point of view, the distinction between denotation and connotation can be made in textual analysis and the existence of dictionaries is used to support the argument that the sign system begins with a simple meaning that is then glossed as new usages are developed. But this argument equally means that no sign can be separated from both denotative and connotative meanings, and, since the addresser is always using the sign for a particular purpose in a context, no sign can be divorced from the values of the addresser.

81. Barthes, Roland, 2001, quotes Saussure, Ferdinand, pages 148 to 150. He deals with the characteristics of meaning, 1857.

Gonzalez Bernal⁸² defines denotation “as the frontal façade of words that show their physical image or outside appearance and stands for the generalized usage, or shallow concept.” Whereas, connotation is conceptualized “as the hidden meaning of words, phrases, sentences or pieces of words that uncovers the very essence of things, which means that it goes beyond the common meaning to deepen in the inner nature of objects. For example, the denotative meaning of a house is “the building that someone or a family lives in,” while the connotative



meaning of a house is “the love, affection, warmth, relationship and the story of the family living in.”

Louis Hjelmslev⁸³ focuses on the importance of denotation and connotation and proposes that although the function of signification may be a single process, denotation is the first step and connotation the second as Barthes affirms. This writer and others have argued that it is more difficult to make a clear distinction when analyzing images. For example, how is one to interpret a photograph? In the real world, a human observer has binocular vision, but the two-dimensional picture must be analyzed to determine depth and the relative size of objects depicted by applying rules of perspective, the operation of which can be confused by focus and composition. One view might be that the picture as interpreted is evidence of what it depicts and, since the technology collects and stores data from the real world, the resulting picture is a definition of the camera denotative meaning. Adopting the classification of Charles Sanders Pierce⁸⁴, this would be considered an indexical sign, i.e.,

82. Gonzalez Bernal. Lecture The Hidden Side of Words, page 4. He compares words with human beings due to their multiple Function, Quito, 2005

83. Hjelmslev, Louis, The Real Difference between Denotation and Connotation, pages 292 and 293. The author talks about Hidden and Frontal Meaning, 1955.

84. Pierce, Charles Types of Denotation, pages 18 to 25. He asserts connotation is associated to the linguistic context, 1985.



there is a direct connection between the signifier and the signified. All of these decisions represent both the intention and the values of the photographer in wishing to preserve this image. This led John Fiske⁸⁵ to suggest that, "denotation is what is photographed; connotation is how it is photographed." Such problems become even more difficult to resolve once the audience knows that the photograph or moving image has been edited or staged.

From this perspective, connotative meanings are developed by the community and do not represent the inherent qualities of the thing or concept originally signified as the meaning.

The addition of such meanings introduces complexity into the coding system. If a signifier has only a single denotative meaning, the use of the sign will always be unambiguously decoded by the audience. But connotative meanings are context-dependent, i.e. the addressee must learn how to match the meaning intended by the addresser to one of the various possible meanings held in memory.

Further on, the author claims that the word's *denotation* is the strict dictionary definition of that word and refers to the actual thing or idea it represents. In other words, a denotation is the actual meaning of the word without reference to the emotional associations it can arouse in a reader.

If a writer wants his readers to fully grasp his meaning, he must use words according to their established denotations to avoid meaning something he didn't intend and end up confusing the reader. An example of a misused word is



represented in this sentence, “His dissent was gradual and hesitating.” This is homonym confusion—and subsequently

85. Fiske, John. Denotation is Real, page 44 . He regards connotation as the inner part of thought, 1992.

denotation confusion—at its best. Although a dissent (disagreement) may be gradual and hesitating, the most likely denotation is that of descent (travel downward), which makes a lot more sense.

However, even with the apparent objectivity of a dictionary definition, you will still encounter certain language challenges on the denotative level, because a word can have multiple denotations. For example, the dictionary lists more than 20 distinct meanings for the word *low*. As a result, you can say, “A low wall bordered the field,” and you can also say, “John was feeling low today.” The same word, used in two different contexts, has two distinctly different meanings. This ambiguity of word meanings can give you a bit of an obstacle in understanding new words. Considering that, ensure that when we read we understand both denotation and context to get the precise meaning of the word as it is used.

In technical or scientific books we are less likely to find a great number of words with multiple denotations than we are, for instance, in a fictional work. In these kinds of books, we have a one-to-one correspondence between word and meaning. For example, if we see the term *transistor* or *operating system*, we will perceive each of those terms in only one context each, that being electronic



circuitry for transistor or a set of governing operating rules for our computer for operating system.

Arnold Burnett⁸⁶ presents a lesson on connotation with the guidance of the visual Thesaurus to help students distinguish between words with similar definitions but different connotations.

86. Burnett, Arnold, article Shades of Meaning, pages 5 and 6. She points out the importance of connotation in communicative language, 2007.

Lesson Overview:

In this lesson, small groups of students will compete in a "shades of meaning" contest to see which group can use the VT to help them match words with similar definitions but different connotations in the shortest amount of time.

Instructional Objectives: Students will:

1. learn the definitions of "connotation" and "denotation"
2. identify words with similar definitions but different connotations
3. distinguish between positive and negative connotations of specific words

Materials:

- student notebooks
- white board
- computers with Internet access
- blank "Connotation Charts"
- "24 Adjectives" list
- "Answer Key"



Warm Up:

Writing journal entries about word choice:

- In their journals or notebooks, have students write a response to the following prompt: “If you were writing an advertisement for a brand new product, would you call it “newfangled” or “cutting-edge” to attract potential buyers?” Choose one of these words and explain your decision.
- Ask volunteers to read from their journal entries and discuss why most students would choose the word "newfangled" over the word "cutting-edge" to promote a product, or vice-versa. What are students' associations with each of these two words?

Instructions:

Analyzing words' denotations and connotations by using the Visual Thesaurus:

- Display the word webs for "cutting edge" and "newfangled" on the white board and have students examine their definitions in the meaning lists. Then have students note the other words associated with "cutting edge" and "newfangled" by looking over the words that branch out from each of them.
- Ask students to point out what the two words' definitions have in common. Students will most likely point out that they are both adjectives that are used to modify something new or fashionable. Tell students that these two definitions are called "denotations" or literal meanings.
- Continue the comparison and contrast of "cutting edge" and "newfangled" by asking students which word has more positive words associated with it.



Students will recognize that while "newfangled" is only associated with the neutral word "new," "cutting-edge" is associated with other positive words and expressions such as "latest," "up-to-date," and "with-it." Explain that a word's suggested or implied associations are thought of as its "connotations." Students chose "cutting-edge" over "newfangled" based on the positive connotations associated with "cutting-edge" not because of the difference between these words' definitions.

Competing in a "shades of meaning" contest:

- Organize the class into small groups or teams with no more than four students in each group. Then hand each group a blank "Connotations Chart."
- Explain the groups that you are about to distribute a list of twenty-four adjectives listed in a random order. When you scream "Go!," it will be each group's job to sort the 24 words into a list of 12 pairs of words with similar definitions. Once the group has determined the 12 pairs, students need to accurately complete the "Connotations Chart" by correctly identifying the word in each pair that has a neutral or positive connotation and the word in each pair that has a negative connotation. The first team that approaches your desk with an accurately completed "Connotation Chart" wins the contest, and prizes, if you wish.
- Direct teams to use the Visual Thesaurus to determine definitions and associations for unfamiliar words.
- Distribute the list of "24 Adjectives" to each group and shout "Go!"



- When a team approaches your desk with a completed “Connotations Chart,” consult the “Answer Key” to see if they matched the 12 pairs of words and correctly identified the words with negative (or neutral) and positive connotations in each of the pairs.

Wrap-up:

Discussing the "winning" combinations:

- Have a representative of the winning team read aloud the group's entries on its completed "Connotations Chart."
- If time permits, have students read through all the positive or neutral adjectives and ask students to identify adjectives that would make a person sound appealing. Would they want to meet a person described as "bold" or "energetic"? "Self-confident" or "curious"? Then, have students read through the negative counterparts of those same words and discuss what they suggest. Would students want to meet a person described as "brash" or "hyperactive"? "Smug" or "nosey"?

Extending the Lesson:

- A fun way you could reinforce this lesson on connotations would be to have half of the students in the class write profiles for an imaginary student's My-Space page by using adjectives in the positive or neutral column and then the other half of the students could write similar profiles but with the adjectives in the negative column.



This introduction to connotation is an exciting and engaging activity involving the examination of sports team names. Students will gain understanding of the difference between the connotation and denotation/definition of words, and the importance of effective word choice.

OBJECTIVE

Students will:

1. Identify and examine the concept of connotation.
2. Differentiate between the connotative and denotative meaning of words.
3. Interpret the connotative power of words.

MATERIALS

1. Dictionary
2. Blackboard, whiteboard, or overhead projector

SET UP AND PREPARE

Compile a list of dozen or so recognizable Sports Team Names on the blackboard, whiteboard, or overhead projector. Examples: Chicago Bears, Detroit Lions, Miami Dolphins, Pittsburgh Pirates, New York Giants, Seattle Supersonics.

DIRECTIONS

PART I



Step1:

Create interest and excitement by having the team names visible when students enter the classroom.

Step2:

Sample Introduction: "What's in a Name?" Shakespeare said, "That which we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet." Discuss the meaning of the famous quote and establish that Shakespeare meant that a rose would be a beautiful, fragrant flower regardless of the name. It could just as well be called 'stinkweed', although it's doubtful it would be a favourite Valentine gift! Tell the class that today you will decide if Shakespeare's quote is true or not.

Step 3:

Engage the class in a discussion by asking if anyone has ever heard of the connotative definition of words, and if they know that words can have denotative, as well as connotative, meanings.

Step 4:

Model: Give a student the dictionary and ask them to find the definition of the word 'Gray.' For a quicker response, mark the page. Definition: **Gray - a shade between, or a mixture of, black and white.**

Step 5:

Explain that the student has just supplied the class with the denotative meaning, or definition, of the word as supplied by a dictionary of everyday language. It's easy to



remember that denotative, definition, and dictionary all begin with the letter ‘D.’
They all have to do with a word's meaning.

Step 6:

Now explain that a word also has another kind of meaning, and that meaning is called "Connotative." Ask the class if they have any ideas what connotative means.

Model: Give the class a connotative example of the word ‘grey.’ "To me, grey means a cold, cloudy day," argues the author

Step 7:

Now ask the class what the connotative meaning is saying. Direct responses to the word ‘emotion’ Explain that a connotative meaning, or connotation, refers to the emotions or human reactions and feelings that come from a word.

Step 8:

Present these examples:

The Houghton-Mifflin Company offers this comparison: "The word *modern* is defined as belonging to recent times, but the word's connotations can include feelings of being new, up-to-date, and experimental."

Step 9:

Ask the class if they can think of other examples. Look up the words they offer in the dictionary, and then discuss the connotation of each word. Examples: *sun*, *wall*, *summer*, *alone*.



The author complements the lesson plan on connotation with the following strategies:

- finding one word to fit all the gaps in a set of sentences which illustrate a range of meanings of a polysemous word
- finding a word that fits two synonyms or definitions
- explaining puns in newspaper headlines
- explaining jokes
- matching two halves of jokes
- choosing which meaning fits a particular context
- ordering meanings in a dictionary extract in terms of usefulness/interest.

Kenneth Brand⁸⁷ states that vocabulary may be focused from two different poles, denotative and connotative. In the author's point of view, words are not limited to one single meaning. Most words have multiple meanings, which are categorized as either denotative or connotative. The denotation of a word is its explicit definition as listed in a dictionary. Let's use the word "home" as an example. The denotative or literal meaning of "home" is "a place where one lives; a residence." Hint: denotation, denotative, definition, and dictionary all start with the letter "D."

The expressiveness of language, however, comes from the other type of word meaning—connotation, or the association or set of associations that a word usually



brings to mind. The connotative meaning of “home” is a place of security, comfort, and family. When Dorothy in *The Wizard of Oz* says, “There’s no place like home,” she’s not referring to its denotation, but the emotions “home” evokes for her and most people. This is an evidence that connotation determines the use of vocabulary because the connotative and denotative meanings of words are both correct, but a word’s connotation determines when it is used. By definition, synonyms have the same denotation or literal meaning, but almost always have different connotations, or shades of meaning. For example, the synonyms of “boat” include *ship*, *yacht*, *dinghy*, and *ferry*. All these words refer to the same thing, but each elicits a different association in the reader's mind.

Brand proves his statement with some examples to justify that connotative and denotative vocabulary exercises test your understanding of how word choice affects the meaning of what you say and write. A quiz may ask you to select words or write sentences that convey

87. Brand, Kenneth, article in the British Magazine for Language Teachers, The Faces of Language University of Birmingham England, 2007.

positive, neutral, or negative connotations. For example, notice how the sentence meaning shifts when the underlined word is changed:

Positive: Sally was an enthusiastic member of her sorority.

Neutral: Sally was an active member of her sorority.

Negative: Sally was a fanatical member of her sorority.



The author goes further when he talks about the Shades of Meaning , through which he motivates learners to create their own connotative, or shades if meaning, activity worksheet.

Positive	Neutral	Negative
lovely	fellow	quinsy
crib	reps	bizarre
mellow	overt	nosy
genial	partner	fuzzy
rapport	turn-around	risky

Make three columns on a sheet of paper with the headings “positive,” “neutral,” and “negative.” Select a paragraph from a reading assignment and record words of differing connotation. Next, rewrite sentences from the paragraph, substituting synonyms that have different connotations. Observe how the intent of each sentence changes.

3.5. VOCABULARY AND FUN ACTIVITIES

3.5.1. Teaching Vocabulary Through Role Play and Games

Guillian Porter Ladousse⁸⁸ in this article the author will outline several reasons for using role-play in the classroom and will offer some tips for getting the most out of



role-play. Ladousse starts his survey by defining it as “any speaking activity when learners either put themselves into somebody else's shoes, or when they stay in their own shoes but put themselves into an imaginary situation”. The author focuses directly on the effectiveness of role play when he claims that incorporating role-play into the classroom adds variety, a change of pace and opportunities for a lot of language production and also a lot of fun. It can be an integral part of the class and not a 'one-off' event. If the teacher believes that the activity will work and the necessary support is provided, it can be very successful. However, if the teacher isn't convinced about the validity of using role-play, the activity “will fall flat on its face just as he or she expected it to.”

The very essence of role play hinges in that learners experience the joy of role-play by becoming anyone they like for a short time. For example: the President, the Queen, a millionaire, a pop star, etc. Learners can also take on the opinions of someone else. 'For and against' debates can be used and the class can be split into those who are expressing views in favour and those who are against the theme.

All these possibilities can be dramatized through imaginary situations by using functional language for a multitude of scenarios, namely, “At the restaurant,” “Checking in at the airport,” “Looking for lost property” are all possible role-plays, and others.

88. Ladousse, Guillian Porter-an article Role Play in the Language Classroom pages 1 to 4, Canada, 1987.



Ladousse asserts that it goes without saying focusing on the reason of its use because it is widely agreed that learning takes place when activities are engaging and memorable.

Jeremy Harmer⁸⁹ tackles on this issue and advocates the use of role-play for the following reasons:

It's fun and motivating; quieter students get the chance to express themselves in a more forthright way. The world of the classroom is broadened to include the outside world – thus offering a much wider range of language opportunities.

In addition to these reasons, students who will at some point travel to an English-speaking country are given a chance to rehearse their English in a safe environment. Real situations can be created and students can benefit from the practice.

Mistakes can be made with no drastic consequences. Additionally, the writer claims that role play is suitable for any language level providing the learners have been thoroughly prepared. Try to think through the language the students will need and make sure this language has been presented, he adds. Students may need the extra support of having the language on the board. The author comments on his experiment with the role play a “lost property office” with elementary adults and we spent time beforehand drilling the structures the students would need to use. When the role-play began the students felt “armed” with the appropriate language. At higher levels students will not need so much support with language but they will need time to get into the role. In the writer’s opinion, setting role play in the



language classroom is bringing situations to life. Thus, he experienced with a group of young learners who played the roles of pizza chef and customer.

89. Harmer, Jeremy. The Magic of Role Play, pages 81 to 84. The writer ponders the importance of Role Play, 2005, England.

A simple cone of white card with “CHEF” written on it took a minute to make and, we believe, it made the whole process more fun and memorable for the class. As soon as it was placed on their heads they “became” the pizza chef and acted accordingly.

In the light of this premise, role play leads learners to act as if it actually happened in real life. Naturally, it may be hard for learners who are acting out for the first time, or for those who have little opportunity to meet with their imaginary goals. To make the role play more attractive or interesting, it would be highly recommendable to use some words of the learners’ local culture, or to translate local menus into the English language.

Naturally, the placing of the written word might be a problem for learners when practicing role-play because they might find that they are stuck for words and phrases. In the practice stage the teacher has a chance to “feed-in” the appropriate language. This may need the teacher to act as a sort of “walking dictionary,” monitoring the class and offering assistance as and when necessary. If you are not happy doing this and you feel that the process of finding the new language should offer more student autonomy, you could have “time-out” after the practice stage for students to use dictionaries to look up what they need. That’s why the situation must feed in the language required by learners, which means that they will learn



new vocabulary and structure in a natural and memorable environment.

The above statements provide us with a wide path to come to the conclusion that role play goes beyond the common expectations because it provides many ways to correct mistakes, just as learners like to be corrected, just right after a role-play activity, while the language is still fresh in their minds. Another kind of utility is self-correction. If we have the equipment to record the role-plays either on audiocassette or on video, students can be given the opportunity to listen to the dialogue again and reflect on the language used. Finally, peer-correction, is also highly desirable because fellow students may be able to correct some mistakes made by their peers.

The author concludes his research by suggesting learners to use their own imagination, for the most successful role-play takes place when learners feel excited and fun of acting out; for instance, when they pretend to be artists or film stars.

Maria A. Kodotchigova⁹⁰ opens her studio by focusing on the tight link between language and culture; this means that language cannot be taught without culture, but there are many ways of co-teaching language and culture. One of them is role play. This paper addresses the issue of role play in teaching foreign language and foreign culture. It introduces a step-by-step guide to making up a successful role play and examines role play in preparing learners for intercultural communication.

There are different ways of teaching second/ language culture. One of them is a role play. Though the concept of role play is not new, scholars haven't agreed on



the definition of the terms. *Role play*, *simulation*, *drama*, and *game* are sometimes used interchangeably, but, in fact, they illustrate different notions. Some scholars believe that the difference between *role play* and *simulation* lies in the authenticity of the roles taken by students. *Simulation* is a situation in which the students play a natural role, i.e., a role that they sometimes have in real life, e.g., buying groceries or booking in a hotel. In a *role play*, students play a part they do not play in real life, e.g: Prime Minister and Managing Director of a Multinational Company, or a famous singer. The other scholars consider *role play* as one component or

90. Kodotchigova, Maria A. Role Play in Teaching Culture: Six Quick Steps for Classroom Implementation, page 15, 1992.

element of simulation. Thus, in a *role play*, participants assign roles which they act out within a scenario. In a *simulation*, emphasis is on the interaction of one role with the other roles, rather than on acting out individual roles. One way, or the other, *role play* prepares L2 learners for L2 communication in a different social and cultural context.

In the author's understanding of teaching culture with a role play, she will use the term **ãrole playä** to determine a teaching technique in which the students are asked to identify with the given familiar or non-familiar roles and to interact with the other role characters within the given socio-cultural situation.

Consequently, the author has framed a six-step-by-step guide to making role play based on the empirical evidence:

Step 1 - A Situation for a Role Play



To begin with, choose a situation for a role play, keeping in mind students' needs and interests (Livingstone, 1983). Teachers should select role plays that will give the students an opportunity to practice what they have learned. At the same time, we need a role play that interests the students. One way to make sure your role play is interesting is to let the students choose the situation themselves. They might either suggest themes that intrigue them or select a topic from a list of given situations. To find a situation for a role play, write down situations you encounter in your own life, or read a book or watch a movie, because their scenes can provide many different role play situations. You might make up an effective role play based on cultural differences.

Step 2 - Role Play Design

After choosing a context for a role play, the next step is to come up with ideas on how this situation may develop.

Students' level of language proficiency should be taken into consideration. If you feel that your role play requires more profound linguistic competence than the students possess, it would probably be better to simplify it or to leave it until appropriate. On low intermediate and more advanced levels, role plays with problems or conflicts in them work very well because they motivate the characters to talk. To build in these problems, let the standard script go wrong. This will generate tension and make the role play more interesting. For example, in a role play situation at the market, the participants have conflicting role information. One



or two students have their lists of things to buy while another two or three students are salespeople who don't have anything the first group needs, but can offer slightly or absolutely different things.

Step 3 - Linguistic Preparation

Once you have selected a suitable role play, predict the language needed for it. At the beginning level, the language needed is almost completely predictable. The higher the level of students the more difficult it is to prefigure accurately what language students will need, but some prediction is possible anyway. It is recommended to introduce any new vocabulary before the role play.

At the beginning level, you might want to elicit the development of the role play scenario from your students and then enrich it. For example, the situation of the role play is returning an item of clothing back to the store. The teacher asks questions, such as, “In this situation what will you say to the salesperson?,” “What will the salesperson say?” and writes what the students dictate on the right side of the board. When this is done, on the left side of the board the instructor writes down useful expressions, asking the students, “Can the customer say it in another way?,” “What else can the salesperson say?” This way of introducing new vocabulary makes the students more confident acting out a role play.

Step 4 - Factual Preparation

This step implies providing the students with concrete information and clear role descriptions so that they could play their roles with confidence. For example, in the situation at a railway station, the person giving the information should have



relevant information: the times and destination of the trains, prices of tickets, etc. In a more advanced class and in a more elaborate situation include on a cue card a fictitious name, status, age, personality, and fictitious interests and desires.

Describe each role in a manner that will let the students identify with the characters. Use the second person “you” rather than the third person “he” or “she.” If your role presents a problem, just state the problem without giving any solutions.

At the beginning level cue cards might contain detailed instructions (Byrne, 1983). For example,

Cue Card A:

YOU ARE A TAXI-DRIVER

1. Greet the passenger and ask him where he wants to go.
2. Tell him / her, the price. Make some comments on the weather. Ask the passenger if he / she likes this weather.
3. Answer the passenger's question. Boast that your son has won the school swimming competition. Ask if the passenger likes swimming.



Cue Card B:

YOU ARE A PASSENGER IN A TAXI

1. Greet the taxi driver and say where you want to go. Ask what the price will be.
2. Answer the taxi-driver's question and ask what kind of weather he likes.
3. Say that you like swimming a lot and that you learned to swim 10 years ago when you went to Spain with your family.

Step 5 - Assigning the Roles

Some instructors ask for volunteers to act out a role play in front of the class, though it might be a good idea to plan in advance what roles to assign to which students. At the beginning level the teacher can take one of the roles and act it out as a model. Sometimes, the students have role play exercises for the home task. They learn useful words and expressions; think about what they can say and then act out the role play in the next class.

There can be one or several role play groups. If the whole class represents one role play group, it is necessary to keep some minor roles which can be taken away if there are fewer people in class than expected. If the teacher runs out of roles, he/she can assign one role to two students, in which one speaks secret thoughts of the other. With several role play- groups, when deciding on their composition, both the abilities and the personalities of the students should be taken into



consideration. For example, a group consisting only of the shyest students will not be a success. Very often, optimum interaction can be reached by letting the students work in one group with their friends. He or she is listening for students' errors making notes. Mistakes noted during the role play will provide the teacher with feedback for further practice and revision. It is recommended that the instructor avoids intervening in a role play with error corrections not to discourage the students.

Step 6 - Follow-up

Once the role play is finished, spend some time on debriefing. This does not mean pointing out and correcting mistakes. After the role play, the students feel satisfied themselves; they feel that they have used their knowledge of the language for something concrete and useful. This feeling of satisfaction will disappear if every mistake is analyzed. It might also make the students less confident and less willing to do the other role plays.

Follow-up means asking every student's opinion about the role play and welcoming their comments. The aim is to discuss what has happened in the role play and what they have learned; additionally, group discussion, and evaluation questionnaire can be used.

100 points: A game to practise linking words



Description:

This is a fun way to practise linking words which can be adapted to other grammar points. In pairs students decide if the sentences are correct or incorrect. If the sentence is incorrect, they have to fix it. Each pair starts with 100 points. During whole class feedback students check each others' work, awarding +10 for correct answers, and -10 for incorrect answers. The pair with the most points at the ends is the winner!

Date: 26 - Nov - 2009
Level: intermediate
Age: +14

3.5. 2. SYNONYMY, ANTONYMY, AND HYPONYMY

Synonyms, antonyms, and hyponyms⁹¹ are three essential elements that are lexically linked, but semantically different. Each of them meets with a different role in vocabulary teaching, and we could briefly define them as follows:

Synonyms help learners expand their vocabulary through semantic choices.

Antonyms are useful clues that guide learners towards guessing or inferring the meaning of one of the opposites without translating or using the dictionary because the counterpart word belongs to the learner's world knowledge.

91. White, Helga Language Horizons, pages 42 to 47. Essential Elements to promote vocabulary learning. England, 2005.



Hyponyms permit learners categorize vocabulary in lexical sets, which help them recall additional items of the group.

In this respect, Laurence Urdang⁹² affirms that anyone who knows language well will acknowledge that there is no such thing as a true synonym. That means that there are words that can be substituted for other words, but they almost never have exactly the same meaning in the same context. Another reason why words often called synonyms are not always interchangeable is that language functions at different levels, some more formal, others less formal. For example, *residence* may be a perfectly suitable synonym for *home* in certain formal contexts, but in less formal writing, it would be out of place. Further on, he sets other examples, *maternal*, *paternal*, and *fraternal*, though technically synonyms for *motherly*, *fatherly*, or *brotherly*, cannot be said to carry the same connotations.

Therefore, we must be very careful in selecting synonyms for a word, because in addition to providing variety of expression, the synonym must also be appropriate to the kind of writing one is engaged in.

A third aspect that should also be observed when selecting the proper synonym is the lexical sense; most of the common words in English have a great deal of senses, some of them quite different from others. For example, *curious* can mean either “inquisitive,” “prying” or “odd,” “peculiar,” depending on how it is used. It is the natural quality of synonyms that causes meaning to be ambiguous. Thus, in the sentence “A squirrel is a curious animal,” the meaning could be either inquisitive or odd. The author argues that is



92. Urdang Laurence, The Basic Book of Synonyms and Antonyms, Preface.

It is designed to achieve vocabulary choice and expansion, 1985.

worthy to point out that connotations of synonyms cannot be considered as a rule, partly because not all of the words in a given list behave exactly the same way in a sentence. Urdang presents the way the entry for *curious* appears in the book:

Curious: 1. *Inquiring, inquisitive, interested, nosy, prying;* 2. *peculiar, odd, strange, unusual, queer, bizarre.*

Urdang states that studies have proved that the focus of synonyms demands the study of antonyms first because antonyms are keyed to a particular set of synonyms, where more than one set might occur, either by number or by part of speech. Second, antonym lists are briefer in comparison to synonyms, mainly due to two reasons:

- a) There may be only one common antonym for the entry word; for example, the antonym for “entrance” is “exit.” Obviously, there may be other antonyms for entrance, but “exit” is the most useful one.
- b) Another reason is that antonyms in many cases have their own synonyms and repeating all of them would be wasteful of space, that is, the antonyms given under an entry should be used as cross references, and the user should look up the main entry for the antonym given in order to find synonyms for it, many of which should be associated antonyms for the original word.



For example, the antonyms listed under “enemy” are “friend,” “colleague.” “cohort,” “ally.” Of these, cohort is not among the basic words of English, but if we look up the other words, their synonyms will provide the following antonyms for “enemy”:

- i) ally: associate, friend, partner
- ii) colleague: associate, co-worker, collaborator
- iii) friend: companion, acquaintance, crony, chum, mate

Thus, the user can make the choice that best suits the needs or the context.

Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy⁹³ introduce their study to hyponyms by stating that the order of occurrence is never normally reversed; they clarify their statement through the following examples: *back and forth*, *to and fro*, *up and down*, *ladies and gentleman*, all of which have become culturally “frozen.”

From this point of view, learners have to learn them in pairs; however, this parallel collocation does not occur in all languages. They claim, for example, in German and Italian people go “forth and back,” that is, “hin und her,” “avanti e indietro” or, as in the Malay language people address “Gentleman and Ladies” – “tuan.tuan-dan puan-puan.” Obviously, neither way is more logical than another and it is the cultural pointers that determine the order of the items.

Carter and McCarthy⁹⁴ quote Lyons and add that in considering sense relations as the result of the occurrence of words in families, groups and sets, which are commonly known as categorization, which in turn is called “hyponymy.” This



happens when specific terms in the vocabulary are covered by more general terms. For example, the words: “rose,” “tulip,”

93. Carter, Ronald and McCarthy, Michael. Vocabulary and Language Teaching, page 3. For them vocabulary is vital, 1988.

94. Carter and McCarthy 1988 quote Lyons. Vocabulary Teaching and Context, pages 67 to 69. They present hyponymy as a lexical guidance, 1977.

and “pansy” are all hyponyms of “flower,” which means that “flower” is the subordinate term.

In semantics, this relationship is described according to unilateral implications: if it is a “rose,” then it is a “flower,” but not necessarily vice-versa; if the implication is bilateral, then it is synonymy: if it is an egg-plant, then it is an aubergine and vice-versa; therefore, they are synonyms.

Lyons goes deeper when he asserts that hyponym sets include things like “hammer,” “saw,” “screwdriver,” etc. under the general words “tool,” “plaise,” and “cod.” Based on this example, we can conclude that a hyponym is a relationship which creates taxonomies or tree-like configurations, with higher-order subordinates, where a “cow” is a “mammal,” and a “mammal” is an “animal;” therefore, a “cow” is an “animal.” Likewise, hyponymy offers the possibility of clear, diagrammatical representations of meaning. Carter and McCarthy go further when they set the sentence, “He is a waiter.” This implies that “he is a man;” but “A waiter is a kind of man” is an odd statement. That’s why they again prefer to separate two taxonomies as “rose/tulip/pansy” - “flower” from other kind of inclusive



relationship. Thus the implication-rules do not necessarily apply to them, but they are a basic way of creating taxonomy-like relationships within fields that correspond to social or psychological concepts. They enable us to clarify such things as “watches,” “ties,” and “cameras” as “presents,” in particular contexts and make it possible statements such as “watches, ties, cameras, and other presents” without the permanent implication that if it is a “watch” then it must be a “present.” Carter and McCarthy conclude their focus on hyponymy by claiming that we shouldn’t confuse logic with conventional arrangements found in natural languages.

3.5.3. VOCABULARY AND CULTURE LINK

Igor Sysoyev and Ilich Savignon⁹⁵ have framed their socio - cultural approach in their recent studies currently applied in Second Language teaching in Russia. Its major objective is to prepare learners for intercultural communication and dialogue of cultures.

In their research they provide empirical evidence that socio-cultural strategies can be seen as one of the efficient ways of achieving learners' socio-cultural competence within second language communicative competence, and, thus, preparing them for facing and overcoming the challenges of culture.

Thomas Armour Eleanor,⁹⁶ on their multiple approach, focus on the relationship between language and culture, a broad concept of culture and the reason why it is used as an essential tool to teach languages. Thereby, they examine the relationship between language and culture and see why the teaching of culture should constitute an integral part of the English language curriculum. As an opener



of their starting point, they assert that language is a social institution, both shaping and shaped by society by large, or in particular the “cultural niches,” in which culture plays an important role. Thus, if the author’s premise is that language is, or should be, understood as cultural practice, then ineluctably, people must also grapple with the notion of culture in relation to language. Language is not an “autonomous construct” but a social practice both creating and created by “the structures and forces of social institutions within which we live and function.” Certainly, language

95. Sysoyev, Igor and Savignon, Ilich. Socio-Cultural Factors in Vocabulary Teaching, pages 118 to 120. They centre their attention on the linguistic context. 1989, Russia.

96. Armour-Thomas, Eleanor & Sharon-Gopaul- McNicol, Ann., Cultural Niches, pages 135 to 139. They focus on the aspects that we find implicit in culture, 1998.

cannot exist in a vacuum; one could make so bold as to maintain that there is a kind of “transfusion” at work between language and culture. In the light of the above point of view, they claim that being part of a culture means sharing the propositional knowledge and the rules of inference necessary to understand whether certain propositions are true.

According to what has been stated so far, Armour and Gopaul say that everyday language is “tinged” with cultural bits and pieces—a fact most people seem to ignore. By the very act of talking, we assume social and cultural roles, which are so deeply entrenched in our thought processes as to go unnoticed. Interestingly,



“culture defines not only what its members should think or learn but also what they should ignore or treat as irrelevant.”

In other words, the authors affirm that language has a setting, in that the people who speak it belong to a race or races, which make of them linguistic actors of particular cultural roles, this makes evident the fact that ‘Language does not exist apart from culture, that is, from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives’.

Further on, Armour and Gopaul quote Durheim⁹⁷ when they set the hypothetical example that if a child sees a *canary*, he/she starts thinking in the word canary then he/she associates it with the bird’s features. And most importantly, the extent to which the child will internalize the relationship between the word *canary* and its referent in the world is contingent upon ‘social adulation.’ If he is taken for a walk and sees a sparrow and says, “canary,” he will be corrected, learning that “competence counts.” In other words, “socio-culturally structured associations have to be internalized” and, as often as not, these **97. Armour and Gopaul quote Durheim., pages 10 and 11. He asserts that the conceptualization of things depends on the individual’s linguistic context, 1947.**

associations vary from culture to culture. Rather than getting bogged down in a “linguistic relativity” debate, the tenets of which are widely known, some consideration should be given to the claim that “language is not merely the external covering of a thought; it is also its internal framework. It does not confine itself to expressing this thought after it has once been formed; it also aids in making it.”



Ochs & Schieffelin⁹⁸ have attempted to show that “language and culture are from the start inseparably connected.” More specifically, they summarize the reasons why this should be the case: language acquisition does not follow a universal sequence, but differs across cultures; the process of becoming a competent member of society is achieved through exchanges of language in particular social situations:

1. Every society orchestrates the ways in which children participate in particular situations; this, in turn, affects the form, the function, and the content of children utterances.
2. Caregivers’ primary concern is not grammatical input, but the transmission of socio-cultural knowledge.
3. The native learner, in addition to language, also acquires also the para-linguistic patterns and the kinesics of his or her culture.

Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to

98. Ochs & Schieffelin. The Inseparable Connection of Language and Culture, page 20 to 22. They emphasize on the close link between language and culture, 1990.



whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds; it determines how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted.

Montgomery and Thomas Reid⁹⁹ define culture as “The whole way of life of a people or group. In this context, culture includes all the social practices that bond a group of people together and distinguish them from others.” Culture is all the accepted and patterned ways of behaviour of a given people. It is that facet of human life learned by people as a result of belonging to some particular group; it is that part of learned behaviour shared with others.

Not only does this concept include a group’s way of thinking, feeling, and acting, but also the internalized patterns for doing certain things in certain ways, not just the doing of them. This concept of culture also includes the physical manifestations of a group as exhibited in their achievements and contributions to civilization. Culture is our social legacy as contrasted with our organic heredity. It regulates our lives at every turn.

Montgomery and Reid conclude that culture never remains static, but is constantly changing. In this light, it dismisses behaviourist, functionalist, and cognitive definitions of culture and posits a symbolic definition which sees culture as a dynamic “system of symbols and meanings” whereby “past experience” influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on. It is this dynamic nature of culture that has been lost sight of and underrated in foreign language teaching and ought to be cast in a new



perspective. Learning a foreign language can be subversive of the assumptions and premises operating in the ‘home culture,’ which requires

99. Montgomery and Reid, Thomas, Cultural Anthropology, page 39. From their point of view, culture shapes people’s lives and it generates language, 1994.

that learners be offered the opportunity for “personal growth” in terms of “personal meanings, pleasures, and power” from the clash between...the native culture, and the target culture; meanings that were taken for granted are suddenly questioned, challenged, troubled.

Jan Kranmsch¹⁰⁰ asserts that the role of cultural learning in the foreign language classroom has been the concern of many teachers and scholars and has sparked considerable controversy, yet its validity as an equal complement to language learning has often been overlooked or even impugned. Up to now, two main perspectives have influenced the teaching of culture. One pertains to the transmission of factual, cultural information, which consists in statistical information; that is, institutional structures and other aspects of the target civilization, highbrow information, i.e., immersion in literature and the arts, and lowbrow information, which may focus on the customs, habits, and folklore of everyday life. This preoccupation with facts rather than meanings, though, leaves much to be desired as far as an understanding of foreign attitudes and values is concerned, and virtually blindfolds learners to the minute albeit significant aspects of their own as well as the target group’s identity that are not easily divined and appropriated. All that it offers is “mere book knowledge learned by rote.” The other



perspective, drawing upon cross-cultural psychology or anthropology, has been to embed culture within an interpretive framework and establish connections, namely, points of reference or departure, between one's own and the target country. This approach, however, has certain limitations, since it can only furnish learners with cultural knowledge, while leaving them to their own devices to integrate that knowledge with the assumptions, beliefs, and mindsets already obtained in their society.

100. Kramsch, Jan. The History of Teaching Culture, page 456 to 459. The author regards that cultural learning enlightens learners' minds and hides grammatical or lexical abstractions. Hungary, 1993.

3.5.4. VOCABULARY AS A SOCIALIZING RESOURCE

Trent Locker¹⁰¹ tackles on some strategies about learning how to motivate students and increase student participation; these strategies will improve learning and make your job more enjoyable. In the author's criterion, these tips on how to motivate students and increase student participation are quite workable.

Tips on How to Motivate Students

1. Show some enthusiasm, get out from behind the desk and interact. Students know if you are engaged in the subject matter and will respond accordingly. If they see you reading the newspaper at your desk, surfing the Internet, or flirting with the new teacher across the hall, they will disengage. Show students that learning is fun or at least fake it.



2. Ask a lot of questions. Questions hook the mind. A hooked mind is engaged.
An engaged mind learns more, faster. Begin every class with a question, not necessarily about the day's topic. Try this one: “How many of you wish it were still the weekend?” All hands go up. Show students you care.
3. Say “Please” and “Thank you” inject politeness and appreciation into any discussion. Every single student's response, right or wrong, should be followed by a “Thank you.” Students who feel appreciated are students who participate.
4. Mix it up. Yawning, sleeping, fidgeting, and doodling are all signs of a boring teacher. Boring teachers teach nothing. Disengaged students learn nothing. When collective disengagement occurs, stop and do something different. Start a chant.

101. Locker, Trent, article. How to Motivate Students and Increase Student Participation, pages 70 to 74. The writer provides teachers with practical recommendations. England, 2009

Have students stand, face each other, and review the material. Play a game that accomplishes the same goal.

5. Use visual aides. I've got bad news: they're not listening to you. They don't really care what you have to say. That's why you have to repeat things thirty times. Use visual cues to keep them focused. Cues can be as simple as an exaggerated hand motion or as risky as a cartwheel. They can be diagrams on the board, an elaborate drawing, or the next slide on a Power-point presentation.



6. Use auditory cues. Transition words help students follow along. Sirens, bells, birdcalls, loud bangs, whistles, and jackhammers keep them alert. Gunshots, although effective, are dangerous, illegal, will get you killed in many schools, and fired in most.
7. Lay down the law sparingly. Every now and then, let loose.
8. Follow it up with love. After you rip into them, build them up immediately. This goes for individuals as well as groups. Let them know you think they're better than that.
9. Share good news. Start class with good news. It makes everybody feel better.

Gordana Pecnik¹⁰² affirms that it is of extreme importance that a joke a teacher uses in teaching English as a foreign language is in some connection with the new material the teacher is about to introduce.

The above statement can be supported by two arguments. The first argument can be

102. Pecnik, Gordana, the Weekly Column, article Jokes in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, pages 10 to 14. The writer manifests that jokes are motivation inseparable partners. February, 2001.

presented in the form of the following joke:

Teacher: John. Give me a sentence beginning with 'I'.

John: I is the...



Teacher: No, John. You must say "I am" not "I is."

John: All right. I am the ninth letter of the alphabet.

This joke is presented in the course-book *Project English 1* which has been used in Slovenian primary schools for some years.

That particular page introduces ordinal numerals. The joke is completely relevant to the given situation and therefore appropriate to this context. It shows a practical usage of the ordinal numeral “ninth.” Students can use it as a guiding activity to the game which follows and at the same time they can relax and laugh for a while. In this way their attention becomes stronger. However, some jokes do not seem to be relevant in any way to the situation in which they are introduced. Here is an example which supports our argument:

Customer: This restaurant must have a very clean kitchen.

Waitress: Thank you, sir. How do you know?

Customer: Everything tastes like soap.

This joke is on the page which deals with family relationships. There is also an introduction to non-defining relative clauses, and adjectives expressing feelings. But none of these seem to be connected in any way to the joke. When students read this joke they cannot find any relevant connection with the context. Their attention is then shifted to a completely different situation and their thoughts can easily wander elsewhere. As a consequence, the students can lose their concentration and therefore a teacher has his/her work cut out for his/her for the remaining part of the lesson.



As we see it, a foreign language teacher can take two possible approaches to introducing a joke in language teaching:

- a. The first approach concentrates on a more profound purpose and that is to teach students how the English sense of humour works.
- b. The second approach deals with a rather straightforward use of jokes in the teaching of vocabulary and grammar.

a) Teaching how the English sense of humour works

The basis for every nation's humour lies in its historical, socio-cultural, and linguistic background. In order to get to know a nation's sense of humour one is forced to search much deeper.

It is a world-wide belief that English people have a strange sense of humour. We strongly oppose this statement.

Under this premise, what can a teacher do to improve the students' understanding of the English sense of humour? As a starting point, a teacher can try to introduce jokes which are closely related to the students' native cultural and historical background, giving emphasis on the words his/her students are already familiar with. Once this stage is reached, he/she can gradually proceed to improving their understanding by various activities. The most appropriate ones would, in our opinion, be multiple choice exercises and exercises involving mixed lines of a joke. The former can be based on the principle that a joke would lack a punch line and the students' task would be to choose among three possibilities: the right punch line, a straightforward ending, and a completely unsuitable ending. The latter could,



on the other hand, be based on the concept that a three-lined joke would have the mixed order of its lines so students would need to put them in the right order. These activities can make students more aware of the role of humour in ambiguous words and in this way they can enrich their vocabularies and simultaneously participate in an active language practice.

b) Teaching of vocabulary and grammar with humour

A joke is a suitable educational device. In this concrete situation it can be used in various ways. Here we present a few suggestions:

- to introduce a new topic or theme, tense, vocabulary, or any other grammatical structure
- to unburden the students from tension which appears during such lessons that involve a great amount of concentration
- to prepare the students for more serious work involving various mental processes
- to conclude a lesson in a pleasant way and at the same time remind them of the newly gained knowledge, etc.

Most of the teaching aids can be used to carry out the above possibilities, among which we have chalkboard, cassette player, overhead projector, posters, photocopies, etc.



After a great deal of thinking, we are of the opinion that jokes can be used in various ways. They can be modified into compositions, essays, translations, poems, pictures, dramas, role-plays, games, questions and answers, etc. A teacher can suggest students to find possible equivalents in their native language, challenge them with such tasks as organising a joke competition, or even facing them with a more demanding proposition which is to collect all the jokes they know and publish them in the school paper. If these suggestions do not offer enough possibilities for teachers, then they could organize a didactic activity for getting more ideas from their own students, like for example what is called 6x6. Six people give six ideas in six minutes. We are sure that students would be more than willing to co-operate.

However, the best effect of introducing a joke in the teaching of vocabulary or grammar is, in our opinion, reached when it is simply told. Every explanation or expansion spoils it. A joke should stay a joke, otherwise its purpose may be questionable.



CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS OBTAINED IN THE APPLICATION OF PRACTICAL CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

ACTIVITY ONE

YEAR: Eighth year of Basic Education

THEME: Animals

OBJECTIVES: -To describe animals

-To ask and answer questions about animals

-To identify some animals

LISTENING: Listen carefully to the description and identify what animal it is.

READING: Read the definition and put the name of the animal.

SPEAKING: Tell the name of the animal according to the poster.

WRITING: Read the question and give a short answer according to the picture.

STUDENTS ATTITUDE: At the beginning of the class, students were ready to collaborate with us. They had great expectations and enjoyed the class.



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N o	ROSTER	L	R	S	W	TOTAL	AVERAGE
1	Abambari Tepan Francisco Samuel	20	19	18	20	77	19,25



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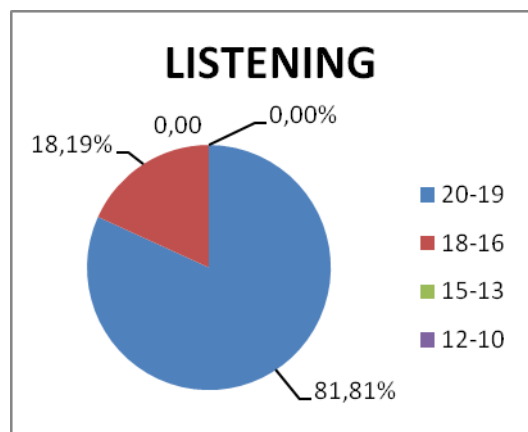
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EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF AZOGUES”**

2	Arce Curillo Diana Maribel	20	18	18	20	76	19
3	Ascaribay ShininLuis Alberto	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
4	Baculima Yangari Edwin Israel	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
5	Bermeo Sanmartín Carla Dayana	20	19	19	20	78	19,5
6	Calle Zumba Juan Andrés	20	20	19	20	79	19,75
7	Castillo Carchi Ana Gabriela	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
8	Castillo Laso Erika Paulina	20	20	17	20	77	19,25
9	Criollo Rircay Maria de los Angeles	20	17	17	20	74	18,5
10	Duchi Ramón Cristina Ximena	19	18	17	20	74	18,5
11	Fernandez Jara Mery Lilian	20	19	18	20	77	19,25
12	Ganzhi Lema Jenny Maribel	20	20	19	20	79	19,75
13	Guamán Ortíz Jaime Saúl	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
14	Huiracocha Maldonado Jaime P.	20	20	19	20	79	19,75
15	Inga Solis Cristian Fernando	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
16	Jara Guamán María del Cisne	20	18	18	20	76	18,75
17	Llivicura Calle Jaime Daniel	18	18	19	20	75	18,25
18	Maldonado Picon Boris Israel	17	20	16	20	73	19,75
19	Orbe Cuconota Juan José	19	20	20	20	79	18,75
20	Patino Toapanta Ricardo Daniel	18	18	19	20	75	18,75
21	Paute Bermeo Carina del Rocío	20	17	20	20	77	19,25
22	Peralta Vega Ana Lucía	20	20	20	20	80	20
23	Pinos Pulla Carlos Anibal	19	19	18	20	76	19
24	Pomaquiza Lazo Angel Daniel	19	20	20	20	79	19,75
25	Quishpi Lema José Luis	20	20	19	20	79	19,75
26	Sanango Vallejo Daniel Alberto	20	20	20	20	80	20
27	Sucuzhagñay Puli Erika Sofia	18	20	17	20	75	18,75
28	Tenezaca Torres John Eduardo	18	20	18	20	76	19
29	Torres Crespo Juan Patricio	17	20	19	20	76	19
30	Urgilés Tacuri Jessenia Maritza	19	20	18	20	77	19,25



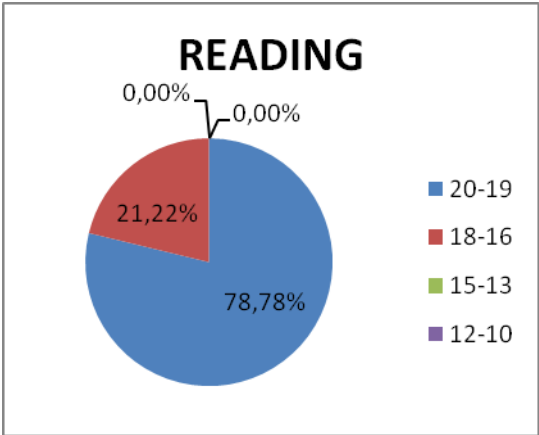
3 1	Vélez Rodas María Caridad	19	20	18	20	77	19,25
3 2	Zhinin Gualpa Dario Xavier	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
3 3	Zuñiga Matute Jéssica Alexandra	20	20	20	20	80	20
	TOTAL	640	640	608	660		637
	AVERAGE	19,3 9	19,3 9	18,4 2	20		19,30
	PERCENTAGE (%)	97%	97%	92%	100 %		96,51

GRADE	LISTENING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	27	81,81%
18-16	6	18,19%
15-13	0	0,00%
12-10	0	0, 00%
TOTAL	33	100 %

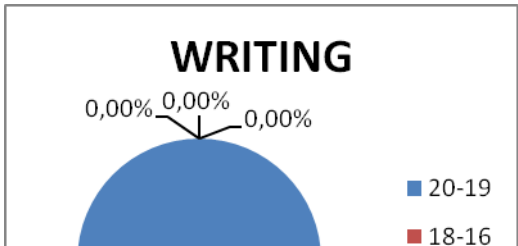
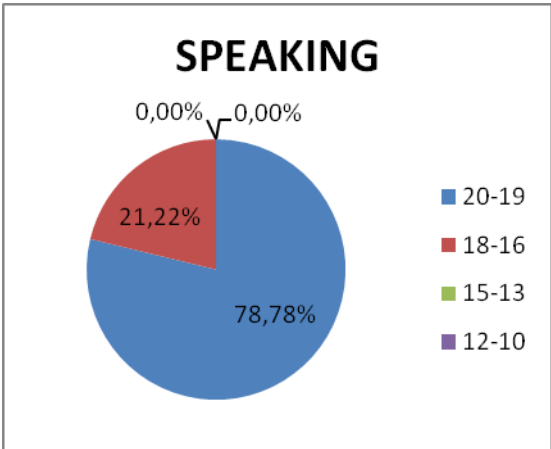




GRADE	READING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	26	78,78 %
18-16	7	21,22 %
15-13	0	0,00 %
12-10	0	0,00 %
TOTAL	33	100 %



GRADE	SPEAKING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	19	57,57%
18-16	14	42,43%
15-13	0	0,00%
12-10	0	0,00%
	33	100 %
GRADE	WRITING	PERCENTAGE





		(%)
20-19	33	100 %
18-16	0	0,00%
15-13	0	0,00%
12-10	0	0,00%
TOTAL	33	100 %

The topic of the first activity dealt with animals; we started with a warm-up activity which arose the students' interest. This opened the possibility to introduce the topic through a poster.

96% of the students found no difficulty in working out the exercise, mainly because the very nature of the topic leads to present isolated words, which facilitated the development of the class. Indeed, the easiness of the task favored an open and relaxed atmosphere.

After having applied the **Listening** skill, we got that 27 out of 33 students, which is the total group, got a score ranging from 19 to 20, which represents an 81,81% of the whole class; 6 got a score ranging from 16 to 18, which represents an 18, 19%. As a consequence, we can consider that the majority of the class are able to identify animals easily.

In the **Reading** skill we could see that students demonstrated ability to read short sentences about animals, as it can be seen in these results: 26 out of 33 students got a score ranging from 19-20; it represents a 78,78%, which also means the group is outstanding. Meanwhile, 7 out of 33 students got grades ranging from 16-18, which represents a 21, 22%. We may say that it is also a good score.



Concerning the productive skills, the results are also meaningful; for example, 19 out of 33 students got grades ranging from 19-20 in **Speaking**. It means that a 57, 57% of the class can speak about animals; and 42,43% of the students got grades ranging from 16 to 18.

In the **Writing** skill, we didn't have any problem with the students because they already knew about animals in general. So, when we handed in the copies to evaluate it didn't take them a long time to answer the questions. As a result of it, the whole class got a great score, that is 19 or 20, which represents a 100% with a great ability in writing about animals.

Finally, you can see that the practice we applied to the students of this level was successful, due to the students' desire, collaboration, and interest. It helped us to manage the class in a good way and to use the appropriate material to keep them active, letting us, in this way, fulfill the goals we set out.



ACTIVITY TWO

YEAR: Eighth year of Basic Education

THEME: Colors and Clothes

OBJECTIVES: -To identify women's and men's clothes

-To describe what everyone is wearing

LISTENING: Listen to the different people speaking and describing.

READING: Read the statements and complete them with the correct color.

SPEAKING: Tell what everybody in the picture is wearing.

WRITING: Write the clothes that you see in the picture.

STUDENTS ATTITUDE: At the beginning of the class, students were ready to collaborate with us. They had great expectations and enjoyed the class.



Nº	ROSTER	L	R	S	W	TOTAL	AVERAGE
1	Aranda Pulgarín Camila Estef.	16	20	18	20	74	18,5
2	Barros Chumi Natali Thalia	18	20	20	20	78	19,5
3	Calle Matute María del Cisne	17	20	20	20	77	19,25
4	Carpio Sanango María Isabel	19	20	19	20	78	19,5
5	Chabla Duran Mercy Alexandra	18	20	17	20	75	18,75
6	Collago Robles Henry Marcelo	20	20	15	20	75	18,75
7	Cruz Paucar Evelin Patricia	29	20	19	19	78	19,5
8	Cuenca Pazan Silvia Patricia	18	20	20	19	77	19,25
9	Dután Morocho Diego Marcelo	20	20	20	18	78	19,5
10	Duchi Lema Juan Fernando	20	20	20	20	80	20
11	Galarza Cedeño Jimmy Gerar	20	20	19	19	78	19,5
12	Jimbo Peralta Juan Paúl	19	20	18	20	77	19,25
13	Maldonado Medina Jenny M.	20	20	19	19	78	19,5
14	Medina Crespo Washington F.	20	20	20	20	80	20
15	Montenegro Baculima Claudio	18	20	20	20	78	19,5
16	Mora Naranjo María Rosa	17	20	20	20	77	19,25
17	Morales Romero Martha C.	16	20	19	15	70	17,5
18	Morocho reyes FaustoAlex	18	20	19	18	75	18,75
19	Paladines Ortega Juan José	19	20	17	18	74	18,5
20	Parra Cáceres Romel Mauricio	19	20	18	19	76	19
21	Pauta Sumba Brigitte Nicole	20	20	18	17	75	18,75
22	Perez Criollo Fernanda Carol	20	20	17	20	77	19,25
23	Reascos Carchipulla Edison V.	20	20	17	20	77	19,25



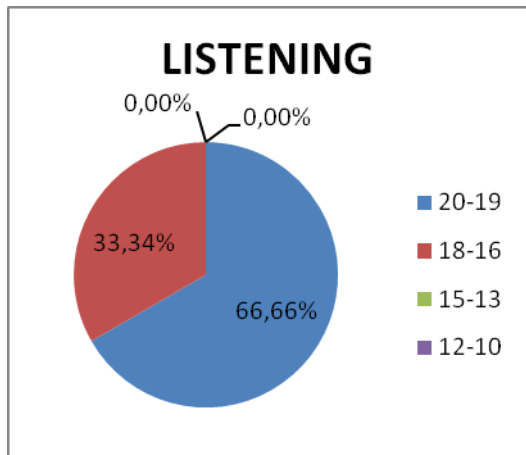
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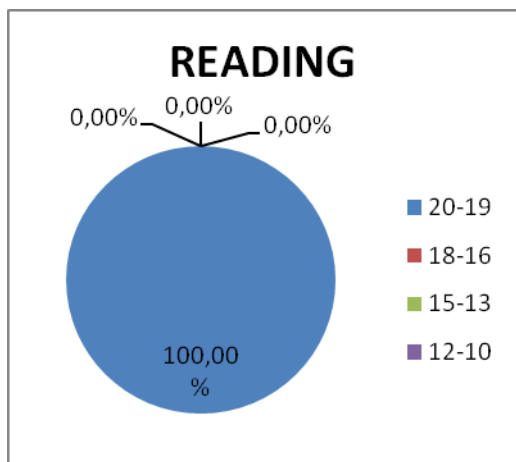
24	Romero Cueva Tania Isabel	20	20	16	16	72	18
25	Rueda Machucha VivianV.	20	20	20	14	74	18,5
26	Suarez Cedillo Mayra A.	19	20	20	18	77	19,25
27	Suarez Cedillo Diana Cecilia	20	20	19	17	76	19
28	Tacuri Riolfo Julio Mario	20	20	17	19	76	19
29	Tapia Astudillo Juan Gabriel	20	20	20	20	80	20
30	Tenesaca Porras XavierM.	18	20	19	20	77	19,25
31	Torres Vázquez Nube A.	18	20	16	20	74	18,5
32	Valencia Jácome Luis Alberto	20	20	17	20	77	19,25
33	Velesaca Cando Juan Carlos	19	20	18	20	77	19,25
	TOTAL	626	660	611	625		630,5
	AVERAGE	18,96	20	18,5	18,94		19,11
	PERCENTAGE (%)	94.8 %	100%	92.6 %	94,7 %		95,5



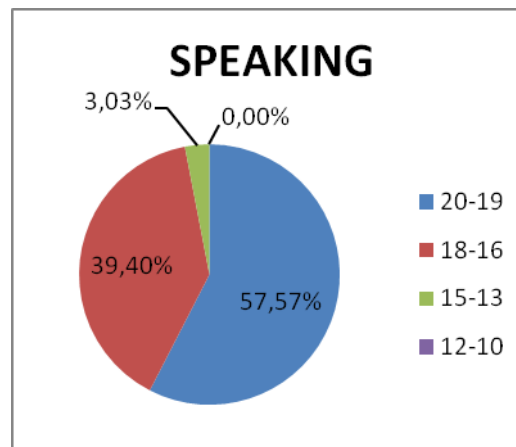
GRADE	LISTENING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	22	66,66 %
18-16	11	33,34 %
15-13	0	0,00 %
12-10	0	0,00 %
TOTAL	33	100 %



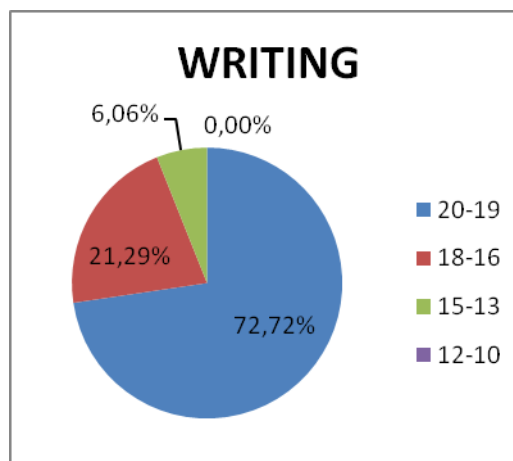
GRADE	READING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	33	100 %
18-16	0	0,00%
15-13	0	0,00%
12-10	0	0,00%
TOTAL	33	100 %



GRADE	SPEAKING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	19	57,57%
18-16	13	39,40%
15-13	1	3,03%
12-10	0	0,00%
TOTAL	33	100 %



GRADE	WRITING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	24	72,72%
18-16	7	21,22%
15-13	2	6,06%
12-10	0	0.00%
TOTAL	33	100 %





In activity two, the situation was somewhat similar to the first one because colors are a part of the students' general knowledge and they love talking about them, because they have preferences in colors; 95% of the students did the activity well and felt happy talking about this topic.

Boys and girls really felt very interested when we introduced the topic “**colors and clothes.**” Some of them whispered that they already knew some colors and clothes and they pronounced some words related to the topic.

When we started describing ourselves how we were dressed, they paid attention and felt involved and motivated in the activity. Then we asked them to **Listen** to a CD about people wearing different clothes. They didn't have problems in understanding it. So, their outcomes were great; for example, 22 out of 33 students got grades ranging from 19 to 20, which represents a 66,66% of the class; 11 out of 33 students got grades ranging from 16 to 18, which represents a 33,34% of the class.

We can consider that the majority were able to understand how people describe themselves.

In the **Reading** skill, students demonstrated their mastery and interest in this topic. It meant that they have learnt in advance. We realized that the most important thing for them was the use of colorful materials and the way we described ourselves and themselves. It helped us to have a successful class. As a consequence, the whole class got grades ranging from 19 to 20, which represents a 100% of the class that can read and complete statements using colors and clothes while having fun.

After evaluating the students' **Speaking** skill, we noticed that most students didn't find any problems at dealing with it; in other words, they could tell or describe how people in the



pictures were dressed. So, we can say that the 57,57% of the students got grades ranging from 19 to 20; 39,40% of the students got grades ranging from 16 to 18; and 3.03% of the class got scores ranging from 13 to 15.

With regard to the **Writing** skill, students were not bad to describe the clothes in the pictures, So, they got good scores; for example, 72,72% of the class got grades ranging from 19 to 20; 21,22% of the students got grades ranging from 16 to 18; and 6, 06 % of them got grades ranging from 13 to 15.



ACTIVITY THREE

YEAR: Eighth year of Basic Education

THEME: The Real Colors of Nature

OBJECTIVES: -To relate colors with objects of nature

-To describe things in nature spontaneously

LISTENING: Listen to the color and tell what thing of nature this color is.

READING: Read the paragraph and complete the sentence with the correct color or the correct thing.

SPEAKING: Find and describe three things around you that belong to nature; use colors to describe them.

WRITING: Write short answers to informative questions; use colors to answer them.

STUDENTS ATTITUDE: At the beginning of the class, students were ready to collaborate with us. They had great expectations and enjoyed the class.



Nº	ROSTER	L	R	S	W	TOTAL	AVERAGE
1	Amaya Quito Juan Gabriel	19	14	20	20	73	18,25
2	Aranda Pulgarin Monica F.	19	18	15	20	72	18
3	Argudo Idrovo Marco Andres	18	16	20	20	74	18,5
4	Bueno Bueno Jonathan Josue	20	20	20	20	80	20
5	Calle Guaman Juan Francisco	19	20	20	20	79	19,75
6	Chaves Rivas Juiliana C.	20	19	20	20	79	19,75
7	Chacha Cabrera Luis Anibal	20	19	20	20	70	19,75
8	Flores Romero Carlos Daniel	20	19	20	20	70	19,75
9	Guaman Lema José Rafael	20	19	16	20	75	18,75
10	Herrera Ayala Camila Valeria	20	18	20	20	78	19,5
11	Izquierdo Sanango John Paul	17	19	20	20	76	19
12	Jara Correa María Eliza	20	18	18	20	76	19
13	Lema Bermeo Mishel A.	20	17	18	20	75	18,75
14	Loja Loja Cristina Fernanda	20	19	19	20	78	19,5
15	Orellana Criollo Paul S.	20	19	19	20	78	19,5
16	Ortega Fajardo Milton Adrian	20	18	20	20	78	19,5
17	Patiño Buestan José Darío	19	19	20	20	78	19,5
18	Pesántez Astudillo Noelia J.	18	18	19	20	75	18,75
19	Pizarro Suqui Kevin Joel	19	13	19	19	70	17,5
20	Ponce Chica Tatiana M	19	18	19	20	76	19
21	Quito Lazo Steve Paul	16	17	18	20	71	17,75
22	Reyes NavarroHeidy Liseth	18	19	18	20	75	18,75
23	Riera Chacon Marlon Josue	18	20	18	20	76	19



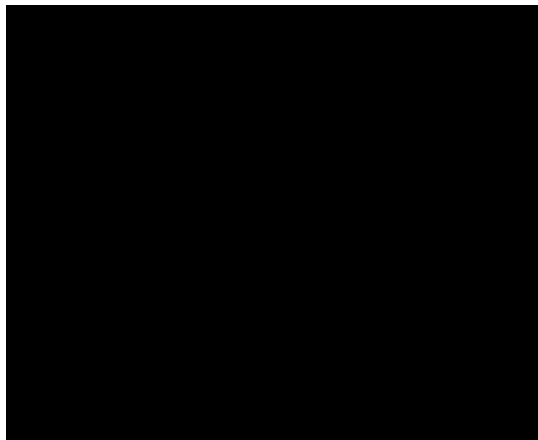
UNIVERSIDAD DE CUENCA

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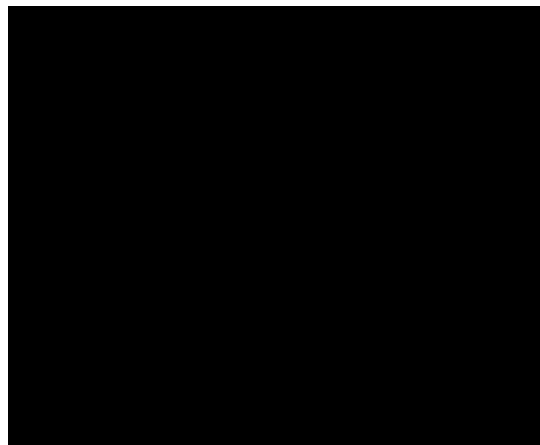
24	Rubio Quinde Ana Belen	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
25	Sacta Arteaga Cristian G.	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
26	Samaniego Vanegas Angel S.	20	20	18	10	68	17
27	Urgiles Bermeo Kevin José	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
28	Vega Mainato Nathaly V.	15	20	18	20	73	18,25
29	Vega Lojano Nardy Michelle	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
30	Vizñay Tacuri Carlos Efren	20	20	18	10	68	17
31	Yunga Lozado Ligia Maribel	20	20	18	20	78	19,5
	TOTAL	594	576	580	599		587,25
	AVERAGE	19,16	18,58	18,70	19,3		18,94
	PERCENTAGE	95,8%	92,9	93,54	96,6		94,7



GRADE	LISTENING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	24	77,42%
18-16	6	19,35%
15-13	1	3,23%
12-10	0	0,00%
TOTAL	31	100%

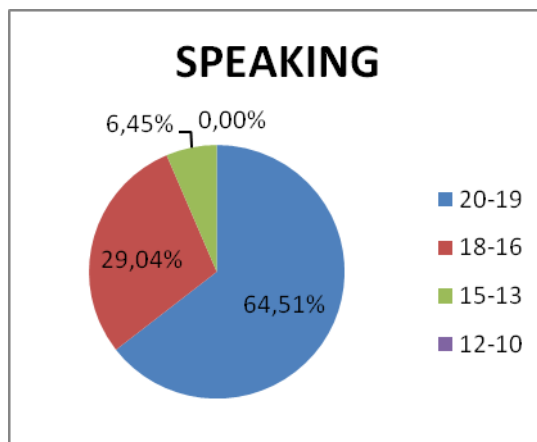


GRADE	READING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	16	51,61%
18-16	14	45,16%
15-13	1	3,23%
12-10	0	0,00%
TOTAL	31	100%

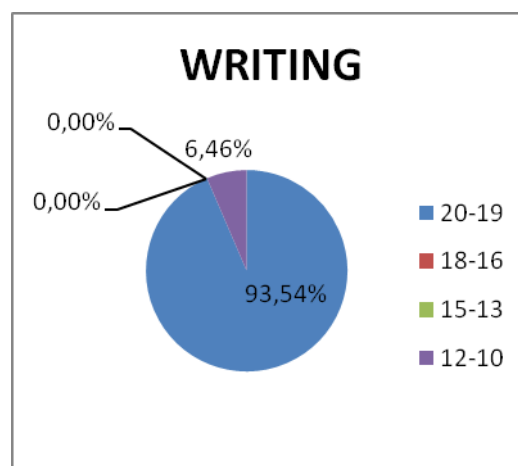




GRADE	SPEAKING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	20	64,51%
18-16	9	29,04%
15-13	2	6,45%
12-10	0	0,00%
TOTAL	31	100%



GRADE	WRITING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	29	93,54%
18-16	0	0,00%
15-13	0	0,00%
12-10	2	6,46%
TOTAL	31	100%





This activity was a complement to the previous one, because both nature and colors are part of the students' world knowledge. They were willing to think and relate the two aspects in this task. We managed to produce short chunks of language.

In the **Listening** skill, we based on nature in order to make the topic easier to understand, so when we asked students to listen to the colors, they had to mention the thing and its real color; for example, when they heard **Green** they said **Trees** right away. Therefore, we got good outcomes, which we show in the analysis: 77,42% got grades ranging from 19 to 20; 19,35% got grades ranging from 16 to 18; and 3,23% got grades ranging from 13 to 15.

In the **Reading** skill, students demonstrated interest in doing this practice. They had to read a short paragraph and complete the sentences; they did well, that is, 51,61% of them got grades ranging from 19 to 20; 45,16% got grades ranging from 16 to 18, and 3,23% got grades ranging from 13 to 15.

In the **Speaking** skill, when we started to practice it, students felt a little nervous because they had to talk about things of the class which are not made by humans. One of the problems was that we couldn't show the environment itself. It could be excellent to carry out this activity in the very nature where they may see real things and their colors. As a consequence of it, 64,51% of the class got grades ranging from 19 to 20; 29,04% got grades ranging from 16 to 18, and 6,45% of them got grades ranging from 13 to 15.

The **Writing** skill was not a problem for the students. They were really interested in writing; we mean, they enjoyed giving short and long answers by just using color. So, 93,54% of the students got grades ranging from 19 to 20; 6,46% got low grades ranging from 10 to 12. It means that the majority of the class are able to write colors and relate them to nature.



ACTIVITY FOUR

YEAR: Eighth year of Basic Education

THEME: Definitions (classroom objects)

OBJECTIVES: -To use words within a context

-To identify the meaning of words in context instead of in isolation

-To expand the students' vocabulary

LISTENING: Listen to some definitions and point what classroom object they are referring to.

READING: Read the list of words and match them to the correct definition.

SPEAKING: Listen to some definitions and tell the correct name for that definition.

WRITING: Complete the sentences with the appropriate word.

STUDENTS ATTITUDE: At the beginning of the class, students were ready to collaborate with us. They had great expectations and enjoyed the class.



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Nº	ROSTER	L	R	S	W	TOTAL	AVERAGE
1	Baculima Yangari Edwin Israel	14	15	14	15	58	14,5
2	Bermeo Sanmartin Carla dayana	18	16	17	16	67	16,75
3	Buestan Cabrera María Isabel	17	15	16	16	64	16
4	Calle Zumba Juan Andres	16	15	15	15	61	15,25
5	Castillo Jara Gabriela	15	17	18	15	65	16,25
6	Castillo Laso Erika Paulina	16	18	16	15	65	16,25
7	Chacha Guaman Ganzhi Clara M.	17	16	16	15	64	16
8	Chimbo Alvarez Ana Lucia	14	13	14	15	56	14
9	Dutan Calle Maria del Rocio	10	15	15	13	53	13,25
10	González González Luis Alejandr	11	14	16	14	55	13,75
11	Guaman Ganzhi Clara Maribel	15	14	15	14	58	14,5
12	Guaman Lema Daysi Johanna	17	17	17	18	69	17,25
13	Heras Vascones Carlos David	14	16	15	14	59	14,75
14	Idrovo Avila Jenny Maritza	17	13	15	16	61	15,25
15	Inga Soliz Cristian Fernando	18	16	16	14	64	16
16	Jara Andrade Andres Santiago	11	11	12	12	46	11,5
17	Jara Guaman María Paz	14	12	14	13	53	13,25
18	Jerez Puli Carlos David	17	17	17	16	67	16,75
19	León Buestan Susana Sofia	14	15	15	14	58	14,5
20	Lema Duchi Erica Alexandra	11	14	14	13	52	13
21	Maldonado Calle Miriam Daniela	15	16	16	14	61	15,25
22	Naranjo Ordoñez Luz María	14	12	14	14	54	13,5
23	Orbe Narvaez Juan José	14	11	14	13	52	13



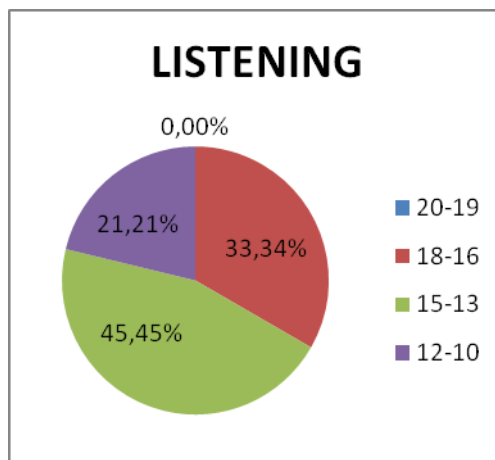
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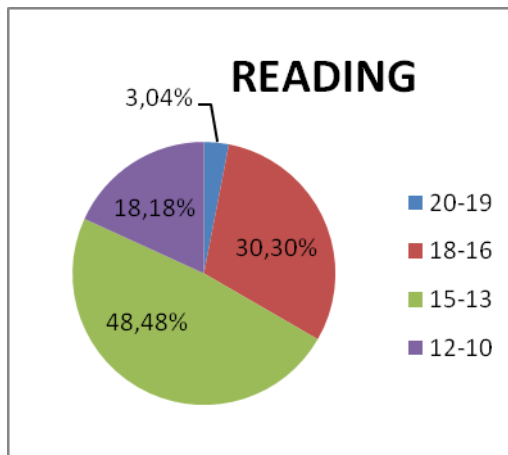
24	Orellana Pintado Bernarda Isabel	13	14	13	13	53	13,25
25	Pacheco Mora Doris Gabriela	12	14	13	12	51	12,75
26	Pomavilla Ochoa Jessenia Janet	15	12	13	14	54	13,5
27	Quishpi Mainato José Luis	11	13	13	14	51	12,75
28	Romero Rodriguez JuanCarlos	12	11	12	13	48	12
29	Sanango Calle Digna Dolores	14	13	14	13	54	13,5
30	Toledo Rivas Karla Maribel	13	15	15	13	56	14
31	Urigiles Tacuri Cristina	16	19	16	16	67	16,75
32	Vélez Ortega Marco Antonio	17	16	15	16	64	16
33	Zamora Matute Henry Paúl	14	15	16	15	60	15
	TOTAL	476	480	491	473		480
	AVERAGE	14	14,55	14,8	14,33		14,55
	PERCENTAGE (%)	72,1	72,7	74,4	71,7		72,7



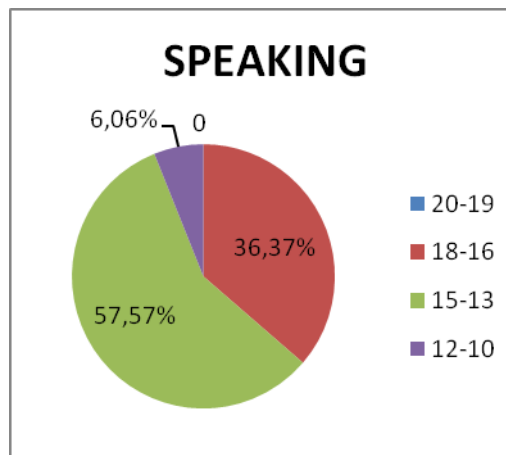
GRADE	LISTENING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	11	33,34%
15-13	15	45,45%
12-10	7	21,21%
TOTAL	33	100%



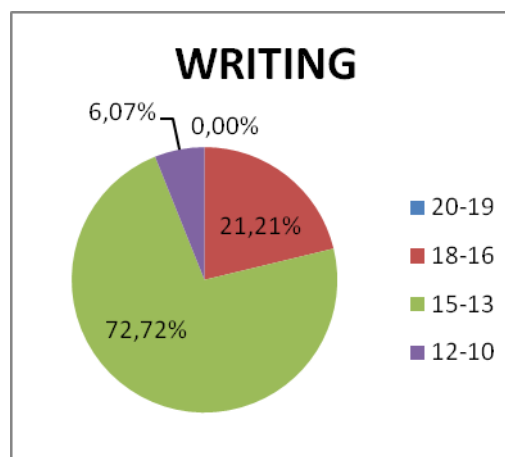
GRADE	READING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	1	3,04%
18-16	10	30,30%
15-13	16	48,48%
12-10	6	18,18%
TOTAL	33	100%



GRADE	SPEAKING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0.00%
18-16	12	36,37%
15-13	19	57,57%
12-10	2	6,06%
TOTAL	33	100%



GRADE	WRITING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	7	21,21%
15-13	24	72,72%
12-10	2	6,07%
TOTAL	33	100%





The topic about classroom objects presented serious difficulties to students because they are used to understand isolated language, but not contextual chunks. Definition demands contextual language, which is the result of having received an explanation, or argumentation, in English.

When the students **Listened** to the tape script, they looked worried because they didn't understand long phrases. We supposed that they were not used to do such kind of task. It turned difficult for them to recognize the objects we referred to. Then the outcomes were a little low, such is the case that 33,34% of the students got grades ranging from 16 to 18; 45,45 %, which represents the majority of the class, got grades ranging from 13 to 15, and 21,21% of them got grades ranging from 10 to 12.

When we did the **Reading** activity, the students found it difficult because they were not used to understand definitions of words. They had worked only with isolated words. Also, one of the obstacles was that they didn't know enough vocabulary to perform the task mentioned above. So, only 3,04% of the students got grades from 19 to 20; 30,30% of them got grades ranging from 16 to 18; 48,48% of the students got grades ranging from 13 to 15, which represents the majority of the class. Aside from this, 18,18% of the students got grades ranging from 10 to 12

As we can see, the scores students got are very varied, which means that it was a little hard to work with them in this activity.

In the same way, **Speaking**, as in the in the reading part, showed that the students were not comfortable because it was a little difficult for them to deal with this activity. When we started giving definitions of words as models, they could not understand exactly the right words we wanted to mean. So, we decided to ask them to do the evaluation part in groups. However, their outcomes were not good. Therefore, 36,37% of the class got grades



ranging from 16 to 18; 57,57% got grades ranging from 13 to 15, and 6,06% got grades ranging from 10 to 12 .

As for the **writing** skill, students found it a little difficult to do a written task. We realized that they were not used to do this kind of activity; but we tried to help them to do the best. Here we have their outcomes: 21,21% of the class got grades ranging from 16 to 18; 72,72% of the students got grades ranging from 13 to 15; and a 6, 07% of the got grades ranging from 10 to 13.



ACTIVITY FIVE

YEAR: Eighth year of Basic Education

THEME: Adjectives

OBJECTIVES: -To express students' feeling

-To describe different feelings

-To understand the real meaning of adjectives

LISTENING: Listen to a song and identify the adjectives using miming.

READING: Read short definitions and identify the correct adjective.

SPEAKING: Listen to the description and tell which adjective they are referring to.

WRITING: Complete the sentences with the appropriate adjective.

STUDENTS ATTITUDE: At the beginning of the class, students were ready to collaborate with us. They had great expectations and enjoyed the class.



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Nº	ROSTER	L	R	S	W	TOTAL	AVERAGE
1	Barbecho Uzhca Kevin Xavier	16	18	18	16	68	17
2	Batallas Sinche Katerine Alex.	16	14	16	16	62	15,5
3	Bravo Peralta María Belen	16	14	16	16	62	15,5
4	Briones Arce David Ismael	16	16	17	16	65	16,25
5	Cabrera Faican Alex Damian	16	16	15	16	63	15,75
6	Caisaguano López Juan Carlos	14	18	15	16	63	15,75
7	Chango Fajardo Jorge Luis	16	16	16	16	64	16
8	Garcia Sinche Laura Daniela	16	14	16	16	62	15,5
9	González Piedra Diana Silvana	16	16	16	16	64	16
10	Jimbo Narváez Diana Silvana	11	16	14	16	57	14,25
11	Lojano Criollo Pablo Andres	16	16	16	16	64	16
12	López Paucar Juan Antonio	16	17	17	15	65	16,25
13	Martinez Rivera Daniela Luz	16	16	16	16	64	16
14	Méndez Córdova Ana Gabriela	16	17	13	16	62	15,5
15	Mora Ortiz Marlene Yadira	13	14	15	16	58	14,5
16	Morocho Naspud María José	16	14	16	16	62	15,5
17	Muñoz Tapia Priscila Rosana	16	14	14	16	60	15
18	Narváez Puma Mateo Xavier	16	16	16	16	64	16
19	Parra Jimbo Barbara Estefania	16	14	16	16	62	15,5
20	Pauta Saeteros Marco Antonio	16	17	14	14	61	15,25
21	Piña Robles Catalina Paola	10	12	13	16	51	12,75
22	Quezada Cabrera Maria Fernanda	12	17	13	16	58	14,5
23	Rubio Narváez Freddy Paúl	14	12	14	15	55	13,75



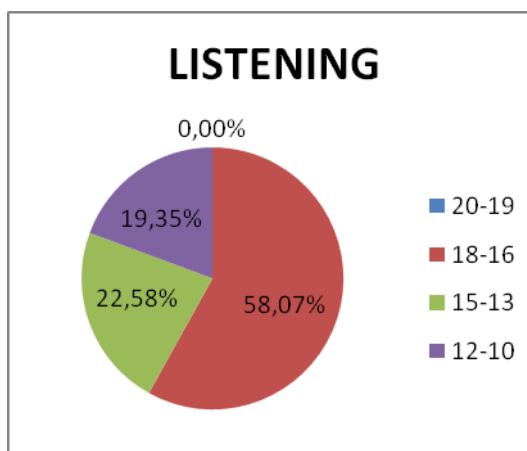
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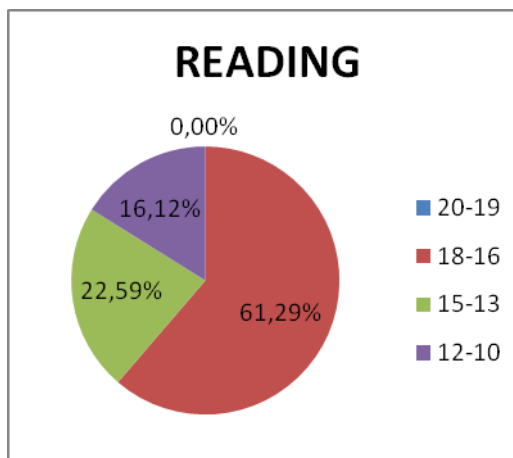
24	Solorzano Tepan Hernan Darío	15	16	16	14	61	15,25
25	Sucushagñay Rojas Darwin Israel	10	16	12	15	53	13,25
26	Tacuri Lojo Daniel Oswaldo	16	16	16	15	63	15,75
27	Tixi Bermeo Edgar Roberto	11	11	13	13	48	12
28	Tigre Munzón Nancy Isabel	13	16	14	15	58	14,5
29	Unda Jácome Edison Ariel	12	18	16	15	61	15,25
30	Valencia Jácome Luis Alberto	14	12	15	14	55	13,75
31	Zhinin Cajamarca Maria Susana	13	10	13	11	47	11,75
	TOTAL	450	469	467	476		465,5
	AVERAGE	14,52	15,13	15,06	15,35		15,02
	PERCENTAGE (%)	72,6	75,6	75,3	76,8		75,1



GRADE	LISTENING	PERCENTAGE (&)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	18	58,07%
15-13	7	22,58%
12-10	6	19,35%
TOTAL	31	100%

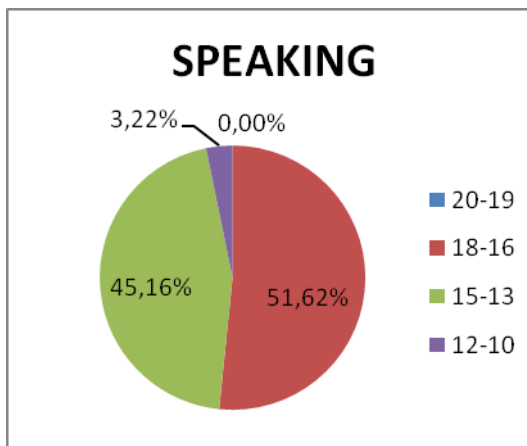


GRADE	READING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	19	61,29%
15-13	7	22,59%
12-10	5	16,12%
TOTAL	31	100%

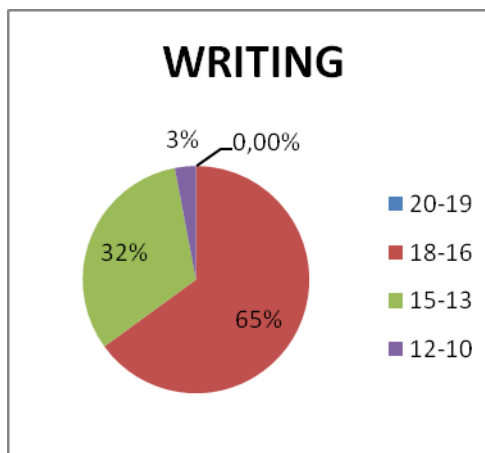




GRADE	SPEAKING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	16	51,62%
15-13	14	45,16%
12-10	1	3,22%
TOTAL	31	100%



GRADE	WRITING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	20	65%
15-13	10	32%
12-10	1	3%
TOTAL	31	100%





Dealing with contextual adjectives is sometimes difficult because students have a limited corpus of language; reason being, sometimes it was a little hard for students to find an adjective for the different situational contexts.

By nature, contextual understanding requires a considerable richness in vocabulary. Consequently, we suggest to provide students with language alternatives, so that they can solve the forgetfulness problem with a similar word disregarding the exactness of their meaning, but giving a notion for communication.

In **Listening**, we talked about adjectives; students liked to work with them, especially with the basic ones. They had fun when we used miming to teach adjectives. They volunteered to imitate us. We didn't have problems in teaching adjectives, so the outcomes are the following: 58,07% of the students got scores ranging from 16 to 18; 22,58% got grades ranging from 13 to 15, and 19,35% got scores between 10 to 12. The majority of the class enjoyed working with this topic.

Reading, as well as in the listening part, was not very complicated to work. Students participated in class trying to do what they could; anyway, their responses were acceptable. Here we have their outcomes: 61,29% of the students got scores ranging from 16 to 18; 22,59% of the students got scores ranging from 13 to 15, and 16,12 % of them got scores ranging from 10 to 12.

In **Speaking**, we, teachers, know that this task is a little complicated because not all the students like to talk; they are shy when they have to perform in class. But we encouraged students to try it. So, 51,62% of them got scores ranging from 16 to 18, which means that they are not so bad; 45,16% of them got scores ranging from 13 to 15, and only 3,22% of the class got scores ranging from 10 to 12.



In the **Writing** skill we asked students to complete sentences using rebus. It was not very difficult because pictures or symbols helped students to associate things with the correct word. Therefore, the outcomes are: 65% of the students got scores ranging from 16 to 18; 32% of them got scores ranging from 13 to 15; and 3% of them got scores ranging from 10 to 12.



ACTIVITY SIX

YEAR: Eighth year of Basic Education

THEME: Synonyms and Antonyms

OBJECTIVES: -To find another way to say the same thing

-To find the opposite word

-To increase vocabulary considerably

LISTENING: Listen to some words and identify others which are similar or different.

READING: Read the words and group them as synonyms and antonyms.

SPEAKING: Look at the pictures and identify its synonyms and antonyms.

WRITING: Write synonyms.

STUDENTS ATTITUDE: At the beginning of the class, students were ready to collaborate with us. They had great expectations and enjoyed the class.



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Nº	ROSTER	L	R	S	W	TOTAL	AVERAGE
1	Allaico PichisacaMaría Dolores	13	14	13	14	54	13,5
2	Alvarez Mainato Lourdes Veronica	13	16	15	16	60	15
3	Andrade Ortíz Edison Ricardo	13	14	14	15	56	14
4	Andrade Barahona Celena Patricia	13	11	13	15	52	13
5	Avila Vasquez Francisco Esteban	13	12	13	14	52	13
6	Barahona Ochoa Katty Magdalena	13	13	15	15	56	14
7	Barahona Inga Fausto Eduardo	13	15	15	16	59	14,75
8	Buñay Pizha Rosa Narcisa	13	16	17	17	63	15,75
9	Cardenas Padron Cesar Leonardo	13	16	15	16	60	15
10	Cardenas Vasquez Andrea Melisa	13	11	10	13	47	11,75
11	Castro Pomaquis Raúl Roman	13	13	12	13	57	14,25
12	Chimbo Pinguil Ana Janet	13	16	16	12	56	14
13	Chimborazo Angamarca Sisa Pacari	13	16	14	14	57	14,25
14	Chuqui Mayancela Mayra Alegría	13	15	14	16	58	14,5
15	Cuesta Cardenas Jéssica Nube	13	14	14	15	56	14
16	Cuesta Naranjo Marggiori Andrea	13	14	13	14	54	13,5
17	Espinoza Muños María Sofia	13	13	14	14	54	13,5
18	Galvez Ambuludi Jorge Luis	13	14	14	15	56	14
19	Garcia Avalos María Estela	13	14	13	11	51	12,75
20	Guaman Pinguil Jéssica María	13	10	15	11	49	12,25
21	Huerta Zhagñay Diego Armando	13	16	15	15	59	14,75
22	Loja Paguay Ana Victoria	13	14	15	15	57	14,25
23	Mainato Guaman María Rosa	13	15	13	16	57	14,25

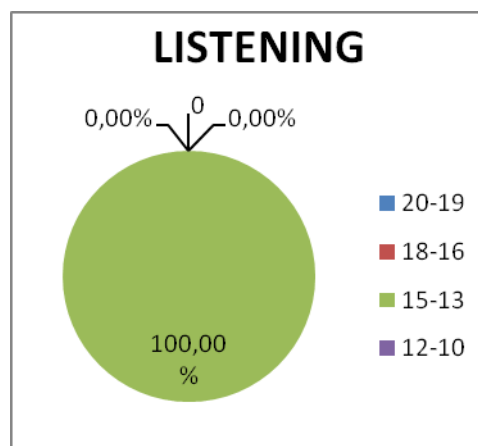


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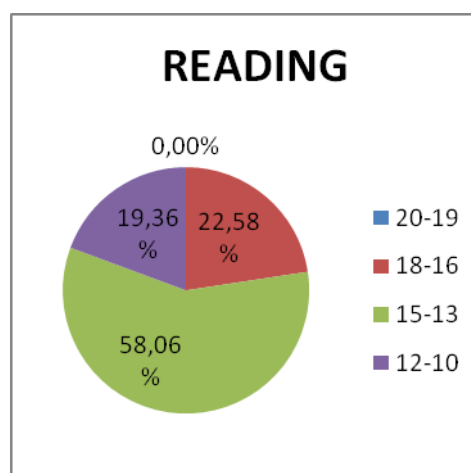
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24	Montero Mainato Carmen Maritza	13	14	16	15	58	14,5
25	Muñoz Gaona Miguel Angel	13	16	13	18	60	15
26	Navas Hugo Lizet Estefanía	13	15	16	15	59	14,75
27	Nivelo Huerta Irma Veronica	13	14	11	16	54	13,5
28	Orbe Muñoz maría José	13	12	14	13	52	13
29	Ortiz Amoroso Diego Andrés	13	14	15	15	57	14,25
30	Paredes Montero Nancy Noemí	13	12	16	14	55	13,75
31	Siguencia Paucar Guadalupe Rocío	13	15	15	15	58	14,5
	TOTAL	403	424	418	453		433
	AVERAGE	13	13,67	13,48	14,61		13,97
	PERCENTAGE (%)	65,0	68,38	67,41	73,06		69.87

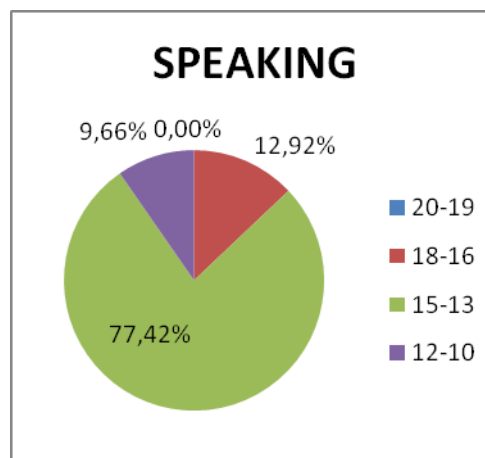
GRADES	LISTENING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	0	0,00%
15-13	31	100,00%
12-10	0	0,00%
TOTAL	31	100%



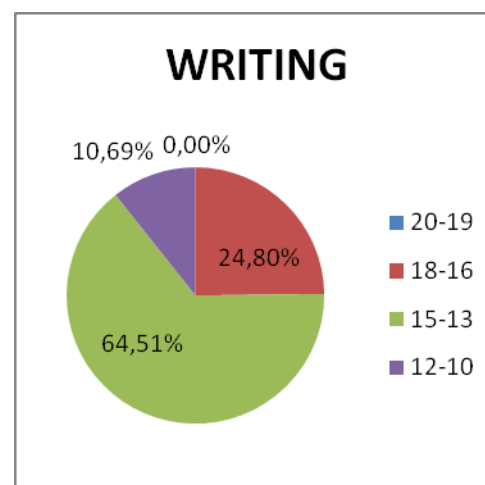
GRADES	READING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	7	22,58%
15-13	18	58,06%
12-10	6	19,36%
TOTAL	31	100%



GRADES	SPEAKING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	4	12.92%
15-13	24	77,42%
12-10	3	9,66%
TOTAL	31	100%



GRADES	WRITING	PERCENTAGE (%)
20-19	0	0,00%
18-16	8	24,80%
15-13	20	64,51%
12-10	3	10,69%
TOTAL	31	100%





The students problem was that synonyms demand a considerable knowledge of language because this is an option to manage and avoid repetitions. Synonyms facilitate communication. That is why we, as English teachers, must provide students with at least basic synonyms in order to give them a tool to manage vocabulary options.

In the **Listening** skill, according to the topic, we had problems with the students because they did not really know another way to say words and their opposites. It means that we have to supply, as we said before, with short lists of synonyms and antonyms before starting the class. It's important to start giving this kind of material from early years. That's why we got the following data: 100% of the class got an average ranging from 13 to 15.

Meanwhile, in the **Reading** skill, we noticed a little difference, which means that there were fewer problems than in listening. So, 22,58% of the students got scores ranging from 16 to 18; 58,06% got scores ranging from 13 to 15; and 19,36% of them got scores ranging from 10 to 12.

The **Speaking** skill in general has been difficult for students all the time because they were not used to speak English in class. Another problem in this part was that they are not provided with enough vocabulary from the very beginning of their studies. So,

12, 92% of the students got scores ranging from 16 to 18; 77,42% of them got scores ranging from 13 to 15, and 9,66% of them got scores ranging from 10 to 12.

In **Writing**, as in the previous skills, students also had difficulties in giving synonyms and antonyms for the given words. They couldn't find the right word because of their lack of knowledge of this topic. So, the outcomes are: 24,80% of the students got scores ranging from 16 to 18; 64,51% of them got scores ranging from 13 to 15, and 10, 69% of the class got scores ranging from 10 to 12.



ANEXOS



ANNEX 1 ACTIVITY 1

ANIMALS

Read the questions and give a short answer according to the picture.

➤ What is this?



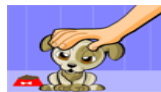
It's a cat

➤ What is this?



It's a _____

➤ What is this?



It's a _____

➤ What is this?



It's a _____

➤ What is this?



It's a _____

➤ What is this?



It's a _____

ANNEX 2

ACTIVITY 2

CLOTHES

Write the clothes that you see in the pictures.















ANNEX 3

ACTIVITY 3

THE REAL COLORS OF NATURE

Write short answers to informative questions; use colors to answer them.

What color are spiders?

What color is chocolate?

What color are oranges?

What color is a tree?

What color is blood?

What color is the ocean?

What color is a mountain?

What color are grapes?

What color is a monkey?

What color is an elephant?



ANNEX 4

ACTIVITY 4

DEFINITIONS:

CLASSROOM OBJECTS

Complete the sentences with the appropriate word. Use the words from the list.

Book bag pencil ruler notebook eraser

- It's thin and large. It's used for drawing. It's used **especially** for children.
What is it? _____
- You can use it for drawing lines. It has some numbers starting from **zero**.
What is it? _____
- Teachers use it to **clean** the board; students use it for making corrections.
What is it? _____
- Students use it to **carry** their books, notebooks, pencils, and other materials.
What is it? _____
- It has many sheets. It is used to write on it. Students have them in their book bags.
What is it? _____



ANNEX 5

ACTIVITY 5

ADJECTIVES

Complete the sentences with the appropriate adjective. Use the list below.

tired	hungry	scared	sleepy	sad	happy
-------	--------	--------	--------	-----	-------

- The teacher **works** so hard in the morning. He needs a rest. Probably he is _____.
- Today is my **birthday**. My family is planning a party. So, I feel really _____.
- It is **1:30 in the morning** and I am still doing my English homework. I think it is time to go to bed because I feel so _____.
- The teacher returns Katty her examination, but **she does not have a good grade**. She looks very _____.
- It is 1:00 o'clock pm. I work so hard that **I don't have time to eat**. I really feel very _____.
- The girls are **watching monsters** on television, they are yelling and calling her mom. They are _____.



ANNEX 6

ACTIVITY 6

SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

Write synonyms and antonyms to the following words.

SYNONYMS

happy_____

annoyed_____

nice_____

exhausting_____

frightening_____

ANTONYMS

black_____

day_____

man_____

new_____

up_____



CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From beginning to end, our effort and commitment have been geared to improve the quality of language teaching, disregarding the fact that the title of the thesis is centred on vocabulary, but contrarily to what might be thought at first sight, we have highlighted the importance of vocabulary, given the fact that it is not possible to teach or learn a natural language without words. From this point of view, we have centred our attention on getting people involved in language teaching, but at the same time being aware that we can not work on listening, speaking, reading, or writing without words. Likewise, we are not able to structure sentences where there are no words. In this respect, we have emphasized on what words are for a human language, and the way they contribute to each other.

The scope of our paper is not only conducted to give relevance to the importance of vocabulary in language teaching, but also to contribute with ideas, strategies and techniques for implementing interaction in the language classroom. This is not a mere hypothesis, but a feasible project and study cases that have worked successfully in many parts of the world and have proved to be efficient and effective in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

Additionally, we have devised a variety of activities, through which language teachers may be able to put into play what has been stated in the previous chapters, confirming that the thesis statement is chronological, theoretical and pragmatic, which have been wittily coordinated with socio-cultural factors such as humour, jokes, drama, guessing, and the fifth language skill, culture.

Our thesis statement frames a challenge for the readers, for they may have to adapt or make changes in order to suit the ideas and activities to the linguistic context in which they teach, or study; without having to engage students in difficult tasks that end up in refusal attitudes from them that lead to low results.

Our suggestions hinge in the hearty desire to up-date and improve the hard duty of language teaching. In this virtue we would like teachers and readers to:

- Analyze the linguistic context in which they are going to teach.
- Remind that any language must be taught based on linguistic competences and multiple intelligences.



- Consider learners as individual entities.
- Keep in mind that vocabulary is the essence of any language.
- Keep in mind that vocabulary is closely related to any language skills or sub-skills and therefore it cannot be taught as an isolated element.



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